The Nation.

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The Week.

The fortnight's session of Congress which ended on Saturday seems to have settled one thing about the question of civil-service reform. Despite all the talk about radical legislation on the subject, it is generally agreed that no bill will be sent to the President. Many Republicans of the Senator Gallinger and Representative Grosvenor school would be very glad to support a measure undoing a large share of the work which has been done since 1883, but comparatively few of that party are ready to vote for the repeal of the original act passed in that year. On the other hand, many Democratic Senators and Representatives would gladly vote for repeal, because they either do not believe in the merit system or want to "put the Republicans in a hole," but they do not propose to support modifications which would remove from the protection of the rules a large number of their own party. The general expectation, therefore, is that in the end Congress will do nothing, and the entire responsibility of making any change will thus rest upon the President. This is most fortunate, as it will be much easier to bring public sentiment to bear upon one man than upon the hundreds of Senators and Representatives.

It is most fortunate that the spoilsmen in Congress insist upon a thorough discussion of the whole subject of civil-service reform. Such a discussion is exactly what the advocates of the merit system most desire. They want the office-mongers to have a chance to offer to the public all their objections to the competitive method, with an equal opportunity on their own part to submit the other side of the case. The spoilsmen had their innings in the House, and on December 15 there was presented in the Senate the strongest demonstration ever yet made of the immense saving in efficiency and cost to the Government of the application of the reform. Mr. Carroll D. Wright, Commissioner of Labor, is the most eminent statistician in the United States. His bureau is under civil-service rules, while the Census Office, of which he has also had charge, has not been. Mr. Wright shows from the records that the cost of production in the Census Office for the same amount of matter in its reports is nearly 179 per cent. greater than in the Department of Labor; or, excluding from consideration the enumerators and special agents employed in census work outside Washington, almost 147 per cent. greater. On this latter basis, the saving in taking the last census, if the employees had been selected by the competitive system, would have been nearly $3,400,000.

But this contrast between the Labor Bureau under the rules and the Census Office outside them, is only one illustration of a distinction between the two systems which holds true everywhere. The competitive method since 1883 has been applied to nearly all the employees of the Government in the departments at Washington, outside the Census Office, and to tens of thousands of other federal employees in post-offices, custom-houses, and elsewhere throughout the United States. The efficiency of employees selected on the basis of merit has been so marked that the number required in the various Washington offices grew only from 13,374 to 15,963 in the thirteen years between 1883 and 1896, or less than one-fifth, while during the same period the growth of the business done has been immense, several times as much matter being turned out of the Government Printing-Office now as formerly. Such convincing facts and figures as these will now secure the attention of the people, and they will remove any lingering doubts which may remain in the minds of candid men as to the complete vindication of civil-service reform by the test of experience. The result must be such an uprising of public sentiment against the scheme to overthrow the system, as will make short work of it.

There could hardly be a more striking illustration of the absurdity of our diplomatic system than the treatment of the mission to China. The place has been filled most admirably for a dozen years by Charles Denby, who was appointed early in Cleveland's first administration. He is ready to remain, and the ordinary arguments for retaining a well-qualified minister, who has the benefit of long experience, are reinforced by the critical situation of affairs in China now, and the doubtful outlook for the future. It is the simple truth to say that there is no place in the diplomatic service which at present makes larger demands upon the incumbent, and no place where the highest order of ability and training will be more urgently demanded during the next four years. In such an emergency as this, President McKinley removes the able and experienced representative of the United States in China, and nominates as his successor a young man who not only is without any knowledge whatever of diplomacy, but also is without ordinary common sense, having made himself a laughing-stock at Washington. It really is so grotesque a performance that it would seem incredible if we were not hardened to it by long experience of the spoils system.

The President has nominated Attorney-General McKenna for the Supreme bench as the successor of Justice Field. This has been expected ever since the Californian was selected for the cabinet last winter, as Judge Field's retirement was then known to be impending, and it seemed inconceivable that a man would resign the life place on the circuit bench which he held, for the uncertainties of the attorney-generalship. This intermediate step, as it has all along been regarded, has proved to be a most unfortunate one for Mr. McKenna. As Judge of the Circuit Court on the Pacific Coast, he was little known to the country at large, but the fact that he had reached this position raised a certain presumption in his favor. As Attorney-General, however, he has been called upon to decide a most important question, as to the discriminating-duty clause which was smuggled into the Dingley tariff bill; and the opinion which he rendered was so obscure and blind in its reasoning that it raised the gravest doubts as to his fitness for any high position. There are only nine members of this court, and they ought to be nine of the strongest men that the legal profession has developed in the United States during their lifetime. It is not enough to say of a possible candidate that "he is a good-enough man," or that he has ability enough so that he will probably not bring discredit upon the court. It is an affront to the bar that a lawyer so poorly equipped for the place as Mr. McKenna should be given one of the great prizes of the profession, while it is a misfortune for our highest court that its character should be lowered at a time when it needs rather to be more firmly established in the popular respect.

The bill to prohibit pelagic sealing by American citizens was passed by the House on Thursday. It had previously passed the Senate. So now, for the first time, it is unlawful for Americans to take seals on the high seas. Three or four years ago Secretary Gresham and Sir Julian Pauncefote came to an agreement that the sum of $425,000 should be paid as damages for the seizure of British sealing vessels under the decision of the Paris tribunal, subject, of course, to an appropriation by Congress. The House committee having the matter in charge reported a bill appropriating the money. The bill was defeated mainly by the efforts of Mr. Hitt, the present chair-

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man of the committee on foreign affairs, on the express ground that a large part of these claims were those of rascally Americans who were violating the laws of their own country by pelagic sealing, and who had put their ships under the British flag for that purpose. This unsupported statement was swallowed raw by the Republicans of the House and by a sufficient number of Democrats to defeat the appropriation. Now the same Mr. Hitt carries through the House a bill, to do what? Why, to make a certain act unlawful which he said and persuaded the House to believe was unlawful before.

The facts in the case were that Congress had never made pelagic sealing outside the three-mile limit unlawful, but the executive branch of the Government had committed itself to the doctrine that such sealing was unlawful *per se*, and had assumed the right to keep foreigners as well as our own ships out of Bering Sea. When this right was disputed, a clumsy attempt was made in 1889 to pass a bill expressly forbidding the catching of seals in Bering Sea by anybody. Such a bill passed the House, but the Senate amended it so as to limit it to "the dominion of the United States in the waters of Bering Sea," which dominion was simply the three-mile limit known to international law. Now, at this late day, after all the expenditure of wind power and sawing of the air that has been heard and witnessed during ten or twelve years, Congress has found out that pelagic sealing has been a lawful vocation all the time for our sailors as well as for those of other nations, and that all the seizures and warnings and other steps taken by the Treasury Department have been unwarranted usurpations of power. This is a humiliating confession to make, although it need not be so to the present head of that department. It follows, of course, that the reasons advanced for throwing out the bill appropriating money to pay the Paris award, viz., that it included the claims of rascally Americans who were violating the laws of their own country, were wholly nonsensical and unfounded.

Attached to the bill prohibiting American citizens from pelagic sealing is a clause prohibiting the importation into the United States of "fur seal skins taken in the waters mentioned in this act." The purpose of this clause is to make pelagic sealing unprofitable by cutting off the principal market for the skins. This is entirely within our right, and the only objection to the clause is that it is not stringent enough to be fully effective. There is still a sealing industry on or around the Shetland Islands and another off the coast of South America. These are not large, but how are our customs authorities to distinguish between the catch in one place and that in another? The bill, to be effective, ought to prohibit the importation of any such skins whatever in any shape whatever. Very likely such prohibition would render the industry so unprofitable that pelagic sealing would cease without further ado, and save us from any more shirt-sleeves correspondence, to which, we observe, Mr. Foster has made a fresh contribution under date of December 2, charging the Canadians with "unneighborly" acts, in the winning style of former communications.

The executive committee appointed by the Indianapolis convention last February—the same that selected and organized the present Monetary Commission—has decided to call a new convention after the commission shall have made its report. It will be an entirely new body, not a mere reassembling of the individuals composing the old one, and will be chosen by the Boards of Trade and other commercial organizations of the country. It will meet at Indianapolis on Tuesday, January 25. The present executive committee, of which Mr. H. H. Hanna is the chairman, was authorized to receive the commission's report, present it to Congress, and endeavor to secure the enactment of laws in accordance therewith. They thought, however, that it would be a wiser plan to call a new convention of business men similar to the former one, in order to convince Congressmen that the commercial classes are really earnest in their desire to have something done looking towards the withdrawal of the Government from the banking business. Such a convention and the preliminary steps for bringing it together will have the effect also of stirring local opinion and promoting neighborhood discussion, which will perhaps have more influence on congressional opinion than the report of the commission or any abstract document could have. It is a mistake to suppose that Congress, or either branch of it, is against currency reform *per se*. On the contrary, it is in favor of whatever it imagines the constituencies want. Mr. H. H. Hanna's committee is therefore right in taking steps to reach the constituencies before laying the commission's report before Congress.

The convention of Southern bankers at Atlanta on December 15 was in general harmony with the Indianapolis movement. The resolutions, unanimously adopted, ask that the Government be taken out of the banking business and that the banking business be taken out of politics; that the greenbacks and Treasury notes of 1890 be retired and cancelled, and that banknotes be substituted therefor; that banking facilities be extended to the smaller towns; that our various forms of currency, now eight in number, be reduced to two, namely, banknotes and specie; and finally, that the Bankers' Association of each Southern State be requested to appoint a delegate to go to Washington and aid in securing legislation in accordance with the foregoing resolutions. There was no suggestion in the Atlanta resolutions that State banks be allowed to issue notes free from federal supervision.

The cut in wages in the cotton-spinning industry at Fall River, which has been preparing for some time and has excited a great deal of discussion, was announced last week. It is equal to 11 per cent. and a fraction more, and it includes officers as well as employees. It is not yet known what answer the operatives will give, but the step taken seems to have been imperative, the alternative being the closing of the works. This is not a case of a temporary glut of goods, which needs time in which to work them off. The trouble is more deep-seated. It lies in the fact that, for one reason or another, cotton-spinning can be done more cheaply in other parts of the country, and particularly in the Southern States, than in Massachusetts. The nearness of the Southern factories to the raw material is of no consequence in comparison with wages and hours of labor. Southern wages are considerably lower than Northern, and the hours of labor are not 58 per week, as in Massachusetts, or 60 per week, as in Maine, but 66 and in some places 72. The skill and efficiency of Southern labor have been improving steadily. This improvement will go on, and will tell in favor of the Southern mills until hours and wages are equalized North and South. This equalization must be effected in one of two ways, or perhaps in both. Either the Southern must go up to the Northern level, or the Northern must come down to the Southern level.

Is there anything to be said about the Dingley tariff in connection with this cut in wages at Fall River? Not much—the less the better, we think; for the Republican papers, we observe, have very few comments to make, and they allude to the subject as "Fall River's New Wage Scale," instead of Fall River's Wage Reduction. According to the Dingley theory, this ought to be a period of advancing wages. Dingley himself tells us that the country is prosperous and that the prosperity is due to the protective tariff that bears his impress. Whether the country is prosperous or not, is hardly worth disputing about, because it is a question that each man answers for himself. Each one, whether employer or employee, knows whether his capital or his labor brings him a fairly good return or not. It is very certain that if the men of Fall River could be polled they would deny Dingley's thesis stoutly. And yet we cannot say that Dingley has done anything

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to cause this cut in wages, but merely that he has done nothing to prevent it. He and his kind are to blame for imagining that they could do anything to prevent it, and they will get punished at the polls in due time for holding out the hope and expectation that they would prevent it. One lesson tariff-wise this event does teach, and that is that protection was not needed to build up the cotton industry of the South. It came to life in spite of the competition of New England. No tariff ever helped it to the extent of one farthing. Nor would it be less prosperous if all tariffs were removed to-day. It stands on bed-rock and will outlast all the protective tariffs imaginable.

It is now officially admitted in Havana that Col. Ruiz, the aide of Gen. Blanco, who went out to parley with the insurgents, was shot by them. Whether he had a formal safe-conduct does not appear; but that he and his superiors thought he had what amounted to that, is clear. Otherwise he would not have gone to certain death. The best the Cubans can say is that he was invited to go out and talk "as a friend," but that, the moment he began to refer to accepting autonomy, he violated the understanding, became an enemy, and had to be shot. But this is to put a thin veneer over what is essentially an act of savagery. We should be glad to hear from some of our congressional experts on "atrocity" their opinion of this slaughter of Col. Ruiz. Suppose the case was reversed and it was a Cuban emissary lured within the Spanish lines to be shot down in cold blood. What would happen in that event we know, because we know what happened when the rumor that Antonio Maceo had been ambushed—and so killed—convulsed, or appeared to convulse, Congress and the nation. Several newspapers at once declared war on Spain, in consequence, and interviewed able "jurists" on their right to do so. Yet here is a much more flagrant violation of the laws of war and of civilization, which seems to be unquestionably authentic, while the Maceo story was instantly shown to be an invention; but we hear nothing from Morgan, Lodge is silent, and all the other orators who erstwhile were so eloquent on "Butcher" Weyler and the inhuman Spaniards, are dumb. Other messengers have been sent out on the same errand to various parts of the island, and it is said that not one of them has returned or been heard from. The insurgent officers, it is credibly reported, have offered these agents of Blanco's a simple choice—joining the rebel forces or death. In the face of this condition of things, the ending of the war through a compromise on a home-rule government for Cuba seems impossible. It is a waste of time to go on offering compromise to people who shoot the very men bearing its terms.

How rapidly the great navies of the world are becoming a sort of Frankenstein to the nations that create them, may be seen in an important parliamentary paper, lately published in London, setting forth the total naval expenditures of the leading countries. The British empire, of course, heads the list, with an annual outlay on sea-going force of $126,000,000, or more than one-fifth of the entire revenue. France comes next with an expenditure of $64,000,000; the United States follows with $30,500,000; then come Japan with $29,700,000; Russia with $29,000,000; Germany, $21,000,000; Italy, $20,500,000; and the little fellows straggling along with all the millions they can afford. The document in question also gives statistics relating to the mercantile marine, annual clearances of shipping, and gross foreign trade, which, taken together with the figures of the fighting navy and the sums spent on it, ought to be thoroughly digested by statesmen at home and abroad who prate about "trade following the flag" and commerce won as a trophy of war.

Two main reasons are given for the way in which increasing naval expenditures are thus heaped upon the backs of taxpayers. One is the need of keeping the navy up to date. A man-of-war becomes obsolete in type in a few years. This is Emperor William's plaint; it is not that he wants so many more ships, but that the old vessels must be replaced with those of the latest construction. But by the time these are built, there will be a later construction, and so on, world without end. Then there is the great strategic need of each country's ordering its own navy so as to bear a certain relation to other navies. Here again the frank Wilhelm enlightens us. Germany, he says, must increase her fleet that she may have a naval strength nearer that of France or England. But see how this apparently simple problem in proportion is really insoluble. Germany's new ships will be the signal for France to order more. English naval authorities already say that they will build a new squadron as soon as the Reichstag votes the Emperor his added cruisers. Then he will be again just as badly off, relatively, as he is now, and the work will have to be begun all over, only to prove again just as futile. But the naval contractors like it; they have the advantage over Sisyphus that they get rich while rolling the stone up the hill. Nor does Emperor William fail to use the argument which all other advocates of a fighting navy use—namely, that he wishes only to put himself in a strong defensive position, and so restrain the hot heads who otherwise might attack him. This is what they all say. Not one of them would use a war vessel aggressively. Heaven knows, they would not wrong the weakest by attacking. Now it is obvious that if such vows were put in writing, or in a general treaty, the need of a fighting navy would vanish. All would be bound not to attack, and so no one would be compelled to prepare for defence. But any shipbuilder, we are sure, could expose the fallacy that lurks in this.

The writer of the article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of two or three months ago, "Who Will Exploit China?" was more of a prophet than he knew. The calm way in which the various nations are preparing now to treat China as they have long been treating Africa—seizing harbors and islands and marking out "spheres of influence"—is a striking comment upon the "Yellow Terror" which the bimetallists have been parading in Europe, and in this country, too, for a few years past. The Chinese were going to crush Western civilization by industrial competition. They were going to "dump" on our devoted shores bicycles and watches in awful quantities. Of course, it was their silver standard that enabled them to do this, and of course the only way for us to prevent it was by going to the silver standard ourselves. This was the great "Yellow Terror" as put on exhibition in Congress and House of Commons. Well, here are the Powers walking up to the Yellow Terror and finding nothing terrible about it; helping themselves to the Yellow Terror's best with the coolest cynicism. It would be interesting to know the official Mandarin view, at the present moment, of the White Terror.

The news that Russia has at last taken the final step necessary to place herself on the gold standard is as important as the news about her taking possession of Port Arthur, or aspiring to supremacy in Korea, or proposing to continue occupying first place in all that relates to the Eastern Question. It is, in fact, to be regarded as strictly related to all these plans for advancing Russian prestige and power. A great and progressive nation, with intricate and expanding international relations, simply cannot remain a silver-standard nation. The two things are inconsistent. The silver standard is the note of a backward or barbarian people, and Russia is determined to shake off any such imputation. Whether her expansion and immensely heightened power, which now seem inevitable, are to come through peace or through war, the gold standard is a necessity. It means security and stability and a soundly based commerce in peace, and it means the highest purchasing and borrowing power in war—and wars are more and more won or lost by money. But it is quite possible that the silverites may consider the Russian adoption of gold another sign of their own success.

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CROSS-EXAMINING THE SECRETARY.

Secretary Gage appeared before the House committee on banking and currency on Thursday, and made a quiet and satisfactory explanation of his plan for currency reform. When we say satisfactory, we do not mean that the advocates of reform ought to be satisfied with it as a finality. Nor do we think that Mr. Gage himself looks upon it in that light, but rather as the best thing that there is any present chance of carrying into effect by legislation. It will always be a question whether this plan, or the more radical one of retiring and cancelling the greenbacks, would be the more feasible in case Congress should prove deaf to all suggestions of reform, thus compelling its advocates to go before the wider forum of the people. On such a question the judgment of the Secretary must be accepted. He is the one responsible for methods of reaching the result at which he aims. If there is a failure it is his failure, and so long as his methods are really towards the desired end, he is entitled to the support of all those who wish to gain that end.

What Mr. Gage aims at was stated by him in very clear and simple terms. It is first to commit the country more thoroughly to the gold standard. The present bonds are payable in "coin," and although the laws require the Secretary to keep the two kinds of coin—silver and gold—at par with each other, some doubt hangs over the public mind, which Mr. Gage would like to remove. Hence his proposition for refunding the public debt in a 2½ per cent. bond payable specifically in gold. Such a refunding, he thinks, would save the Government about $10,000,000 per year in the way of interest. This would be an incidental gain, but it is not the chief end of the bill.

The Secretary's next aim is to make the demand liabilities of the Treasury a manageable quantity, first by separating its functions as a bank from those as a receiver and disburser of taxes, and second by curtailing the amount of the demand liabilities outstanding, and third by doing this in a way which shall not contract the circulation in the hands of the people. The plan involves the collection of $200,000,000 of those demand liabilities in the Treasury and the issue of an equal amount of national bank-notes. He estimates that if this plan could receive the sanction of Congress the Treasury would have no more trouble with greenback redemption, with the "endless chain," or with the maintenance of parity between silver money and gold money.

Here the cross-examination of the Secretary began. Mr. Brosius wanted to know how the parity of the two metals could be maintained if the Government's demand obligations were withdrawn from circulation and accumulated in the Treasury. The drift of this inquiry, as disclosed by subsequent questions, showed that Mr. Brosius and other members of the committee look upon the Government as the fountain of gold, and apprehend that if this fountain is dried up, the public will not be able to get any to pay their foreign debts with. Mr. Gage said very properly that there would still be a sufficiency of demand obligations outstanding for this purpose, but that the public would simply ask the banks for gold when they wanted it instead of asking the Government. Here Mr. Gage's cross-examiners came out strong, and wanted to know what would happen if the banks when called on for gold should refuse to pay it. Mr. Gage said that they must pay in legal-tender money, which would always bring gold. If they did not pay in legal-tender money the Government would seize their assets according to law and turn the same over to their customers. "But how if they pay silver instead of gold?" asked one member. Silver dollars are legal tender; how will the public obtain gold to pay their foreign debts with if the banks pay silver dollars instead of gold or greenbacks?

Mr. Gage's answer was twofold—first, that the banks would not do anything of the kind, because it would not be for their interest to do so; second, that in such a case the obligation imposed on the Treasury to keep the two kinds of money on a parity with each other would be imperative and would be obeyed. Then he gave some illustrations of banking methods out of his own abundant experience, which must have tended to soothe the fears of his friends on the committee. The questions put to him show how the bad education of the greenback régime has indoctrinated the public mind with false conceptions of money. The spectacle of the Government furnishing gold on demand when wanted by the mercantile community for legitimate trade or by the public in a panic, and the difficulty that the Government has experienced in obtaining it, have led many people to think that without the hoard in the Treasury there would be no gold, and that if there were no greenbacks available, merchants would go through the streets wringing their hands because they could get no gold to pay their foreign debts with. This conception ignores several patent facts. One is, that whenever the Government runs short of gold, it applies to the banks for a fresh supply and always obtains it. Another is, that it is no more difficult for a bank to pay gold than it is to pay anything else. In the panic of 1893 they did pay gold as long as they paid anything.

Another fact is, that banks always pay the kind of money that their depositors want, because it is for their interest to be on good terms with their customers. The only instance in recent years when they have refused either to pay gold or to draw gold from the Treasury for their customers, was when they were trying to protect the Government against a panic run. Even in this case they paid greenbacks when they were demanded, with which the depositors could draw gold from the Treasury if they wished. In no instance—not in the severest pinch—was a tender of silver dollars made. Such a tender to an unwilling customer would probably have precipitated a special run on the offending bank and closed it up. At all events, no such thing ever happened. It is within recollection that on several occasions the banks have voluntarily tendered gold to the Treasury, independently of bond sales, tens of millions at a time, with no other purpose than to quiet public apprehensions. And yet men can be found in Congress who think that the banks, rather than pay gold to their customers on demand, would take silver certificates and carts to the Treasury, draw silver dollars $30,000 of which weigh a ton, bring those back to their own vaults and pass them over the counter in payment of checks, with the certainty that every customer so treated would become an enemy of the bank, and would transfer his account elsewhere the next day.

SUBSTITUTES FOR THE PRIMARY

One of the most cheering signs of the times is the steadily increasing distrust of the primary among the better class of politicians. The old delusion that the only way in which to secure more desirable nominations is to "go into the primary," has clearly seen its best days. For the first time almost in the history of the Republican party in this city, the entire Better Element refused last week to be enticed into the machine primaries. Heretofore most of them have weakened at the last moment, and, "for the sake of the party," have consented to put themselves once more into the hands of a lot of political rapscallions who gain possession of the party in order to use it for their personal benefit. What Platt did in the last campaign did not differ in kind from what he has done many times before, but the situation forced him to do it more openly than ever before. There was, in fact, no answer to such questions as these: Should we not have been better off without any organization at all than with the one we had? Would not all Republicans then have voted for Low, and would he not have been elected? Without the regular organization, would Tracy ever have been put in the field, or, if he had been put in the field, would he have polled votes enough to enable Tammany to win?

Going into the primaries with the Plattites and their kind is, in fact, like going into a faro bank with a select

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company of honorable gentlemen and proposing to the proprietor and his associates to unite with them to reform the game. You will either be thrown into the street at once with a broken head, or swindled of your money and put out later. The men who run the primary game are in possession, have all the tricks of the business at their command, and can always command support enough to enable them to overcome or outvote any amount of reformers. If by any chance they are defeated in a contest, all they have to do is to appeal to the "regularly constituted authorities" of the party, and their opponents will be set aside as "irregular," and they themselves reinstated in power as "regular." Such is the law of this State, as prepared and enacted under machine guidance, and as interpreted by the Court of Appeals.

Reform of the primary being hopeless, the only course for the advocates of honest nominating methods to follow is to seek such measures as will make the primary powerless. The first step in this direction is to let it alone—leave it, as the Hon. Jacob Worth would say, to "stew in its own juice." Let its nominations stand for what they are—nothing except those of the machine. The next step is to oppose these nominations with really good ones, and in this field there is much opportunity for thought and suggestion. As we have said repeatedly, one method is always at hand, and that is the nomination by petition as authorized by the new ballot laws which are in force in most of our States. Platt has done his utmost to destroy the usefulness of that right in this State, by placing the number of signatures to a nomination petition so high as to be prohibitive in many localities. A systematic effort should be started at once to get these provisions amended. The voters of the State are now aroused to the merits of the subject, and it will do much good to arouse them still further. A refusal by Platt and his legislators to amend the law will be certain to add to the popular disgust with him which has already made his doom certain in the near future.

A method of nomination otherwise than by petition has been devised by Mr. F. M. Brooks, an active anti-machine Republican of Brooklyn, which is worthy of consideration. He proposes the institution of a nominating ballot system, to be put in use at all the polling places on the days of registration. A fixed number of citizens, say fifty or more, according to the importance of the office, could by petition get the name of any man whom they wished to be nominated, placed upon a nominating ballot. They would have to make oath that they belonged to a particular party, and were in sympathy with its principles. The names of all candidates thus properly presented to the Election Bureau would be arranged in order under the various offices and divided into party groups. That is to say, under "Republican" could be arranged all candidates of that party, and under "Democratic" all candidates of that party. When the voter registers he can be handed one of these nominating ballots, and, going into a booth, can mark the candidates whom he would prefer to see nominated. The voting would be continued through all the days of registration, and the box containing the ballots would remain unopened till the close.

Mr. Brooks proposes a law providing for this system, and requiring that the name of the person receiving the highest number of votes in each party for each office shall be the nominee of that party, and have his name printed as such on the official election ballots. He argues that as a larger number of citizens register at every election than vote on Election Day, his system would be likely to secure a very general expression of opinion from the voters, and would thus work naturally to defeat any efforts of the professional politicians to control it.

The first objection which will occur to students of such matters will be that since no effort can be made at the time of registration to ascertain the politics of a voter, there can be no check upon the right of the members of one party to take a hand in the nomination of candidates of the opposite party. The politicians of both parties could, in fact, combine to help one another nominate the candidates of their choice. Of course, the Republican who voted for a Democratic nominee would deprive himself of the opportunity to vote for any Republican nominee, and vice-versa. Mr. Brooks thinks that this fact would act as a sufficient regulation, and it might do so, but there are conditions under which it would almost surely fail to do so. Any man who voted on both sides would have his ballot thrown out.

The plan is worth considering. It would depend for its efficacy, if enacted and put in force, upon the willingness of the people who desire good government to take the necessary trouble to secure it. If they failed to bestir themselves sufficiently to get good names upon the nominating ballots, the professional politicians would get the names of their men there, and would control the system as easily as they control the present primaries. The great merit of the Brooks plan is that it takes the nominating machinery out of the hands of a lot of people in a room. Anything which brings a company of men together in a room to make a nomination produces inevitably a machine of some sort. Somebody has a plan for "running the meeting," and in that necessity, for it is a necessity, lies the germ of the political machine. Nomination by petition rids us of this, and so does nomination by the ballot as proposed by Mr. Brooks.

LITERATURE AND POLITICS.

The question has been raised in *Literature*, by its American correspondent, apropos of Mr. Cabot Lodge, whether a man can be "a successful politician of the partisan type" and at the same time "a conscientiously equipped man of letters," both of which the writer says Mr. Lodge is. We admit that he is a successful politician of the partisan type, but can a man of this kind be "a conscientiously equipped man of letters"? Without meaning to make too much of Mr. Lodge, as an example, we must doubt it extremely. "Successful politicians of the partisan type" are very common both here and in England. Platt, Quay, Gorman, Disraeli, Chamberlain, among others, are of this type, but in all these cases it has been found that this partisanship was incompatible with literary success in any field but fiction. In fiction a writer does not need to be conscientious. Nobody expects him to put any conscience into his work unless he chooses. What he has to do is to make his book sell and not outrage decency. Consequently, it was easy enough for Disraeli to write successful novels, and Chamberlain and Quay might readily compose a 'Utopia' or a 'Voyage to the Moon,' without drawing on any qualities of character except diligence.

But if any of these men chose to write history, or moral or philosophical essays, the question of their sincerity and truthfulness would at once come up. Do they believe what they say? Are they in the habit of making statements for other purposes than diffusing opinions honestly formed and honestly held? Would they knowingly misrepresent a fact for the purpose of achieving concealed ends? These are inquiries which are inevitably made when a man presents himself to the public either as a narrator or as a moralizer. People want to be sure, before they read him, that he has taken pains to ascertain the truth, and that the triumph of this, and not party triumph, is his chief aim. For this reason, for instance, John Morley is held to be a "conscientiously equipped literary man," but no one will claim for him that he is "a successful politician of the partisan type." Mr. Gladstone is a successful politician of the partisan type, but, in spite of his many great qualities, nobody will call him a successful literary man. Disraeli was a very successful politician and novelist, but if he had undertaken to write history or moral essays, the world would have laughed.

The reason is, that it is impossible to become a preacher or a trusted narrator without character, and political success does not make character. There are many successful politicians whom sober-

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minded people habitually designate as rascals. Character consists, not of occasional spurts of goodness, or the occasional utterance of ennobling sentiments, but of habitual devotion to one's ideals of truth and justice; and the foundation of all these things is sincerity. Sincerity is the basis of good living. To have the reputation of it people must feel sure that you yourself believe what you utter, through their knowledge that throughout your career you have seemed to do so. It is not enough that, as they say of the New York politicians, you "pull straight this time." They must know you have always been "pulling straight." Suppose Platt were to write a history of New York politics during the last twenty years; who would buy it or read it, except through curiosity or for fun? And yet it might be truthful, and he might say that for this work he was "conscientiously equipped."

The world has found, in fact, that the successful practice of partisan politics involves frequent departures from the truth, frequent misrepresentations, frequent pretences that you hold opinions which you do not hold; the habit of saying in private what you do not say in public; the practice of measuring men's reputations by their value to your own party, and judging measures by the attitude of the party towards them, rather than by their importance to the country. Rightly or wrongly—we think rightly—people believe, on an overwhelming mass of testimony, that the effect of these things on character, when long practised, is destructive; that no man can serve party and serve conscience, and that if he succeeds in politics he does so at the expense of many of the finer qualities of the soul, and more especially of those which enable him to write effectively of duty, or honor, or patriotism.

It is easy enough to apply these canons to Mr. Lodge's case. He pretended to be a silver man, and asked for a discriminating duty on British goods to punish England for being a gold nation. In two years he was denouncing Bryan's silverism, and clamoring for the gold standard for us. He pretended for months to know that Great Britain had encroached on Venezuelan territory, and to know even to what extent in square miles. It now appears he could not have known anything of the kind, because nobody knew it. We cite two plain cases. There are several others which only excite suspicion. But they are sufficient for the public to rule Mr. Lodge out of the category either of conscientious politicians or of conscientious literary men. He is one more illustration of the incompatibility of the position of successful politician and of that of the man who writes for instruction or elevation, or, in fact, for anything but entertainment.

We are far from holding that the career of a demagogue may not be a useful, or even a necessary one. In modern as in ancient democracy, the work of getting people to vote in one way or another, on questions they do not understand, or do not understand fully, must be done by somebody, and it cannot be nice work. It is, of course, as full of temptations as the work of a courtier. It invites flattery, humbug, and misrepresentation in about equal parts, and these are temptations which every man who pursues the calling, cannot be expected always to resist. The utmost we can expect from most men in it is that they shall abstain from the grosser forms of deception, or, in other words, shall be as good as the circumstances will permit, and never go further than seems necessary. An adherence to this rule on the part of leading Republicans would have stopped the silver craze in the seventies. A persistent but unnecessary course of pretending to believe what they did not believe, on the part of the leading men of the party, of whom Mr. Lodge was one, at last produced that shape of dread, "Bryanism."

Indulgent as the public may be to the demagogue, it will seldom or never excuse his setting up for a moralist, or claiming "conscientious equipment" as either an historian or an essayist. It insists on his lying in the bed he has made for himself, on his playing the rôle he has deliberately assumed for himself. No man need be a demagogue unless he pleases. A hundred other ways of usefulness are open to him, especially if he has a fortune. But he must choose, and stick to his choice. The only display of conscience which the world allows him is the proof that he does not "deceive all the people all the time," and that he does the dirty work, which somebody must do, as well as he can. But it does not permit him to walk from the caucus to the professor's chair, and, after having arranged with Barney to euchre Jake, to talk to us of faith, virtue, and knowledge, of the martyrs of duty, and of the heroic souls who "died as the fool dieth," for principle.

THE QUESTION OF CHEAP BOOKS.

English publishers have been for some weeks agitating and organizing to put an end to the practice of selling books at a discount from the list price. Their aim was to introduce in England something like the German system, with the bookseller only a sort of agent or servant of the publisher, and bound to maintain published prices or be driven out of business. After formulating their proposals, the publishers submitted them to the Authors' Society. Without the assent and coöperation of writers, the plan would not, the publishers confessed, be practicable, and, as they wrote, would be "necessarily dropped." The Authors' Society returned an adverse report on November 30, and the plan must, therefore, be considered dropped.

But it opens up the whole question of cheap books and sales at a discount, which is a question having many relations to human nature and morals, as well as to the interests of author and publisher. This is not the first time that a project of this kind has been urged. In the years 1848-52 a very general effort was made in the English publishing world to keep up the prices of books. At that time, too, many authors refused to join the movement. Dickens declined to lend his sanction; so did Carlyle and Darwin and Tennyson. They maintained two propositions: (1) that it was to the advantage of both writer and public that books should be cheap; and (2) that, even if it were not, it would be impossible to prevent evasion of any publishers' agreement that might be made. If booksellers did not cut under list prices, tailors or grocers or stationers would. There is no doubt a deep-seated instinct of the human heart in the shape of a strong desire to buy books, like other commodities, at something "off." "Inside" prices and the "most-favored-nation" discount do, in truth, appeal to a powerful passion in mortal breasts. The ravages of it we have seen in painful form, and we are not sure that we have not at times suffered from them ourselves.

The real difficulty, from the point of view of a close corporation, or iron-clad agreement, among publishers, is that there is no law, human or divine, by which they have the sole right to print and sell books. This truth was set forth with much force by the committee of the Authors' Society. Granting the desirability of keeping up the prices of books, there was no way of compelling a popular author to do it. If he knew that he could sell 20,000 copies at $1, as against only 5,000 at $2, he would have the publishers at his mercy. He could print his book himself, or get a draper or a department store to do it. And if it were said that he would be kept out of the regular channels of the trade, the answer would be that one of the big shops often sells more books in an hour than a country book-store does in a year. It thus appears that book-publishing is, in the nature of the case, not a business which can be monopolized, or made into a Trust, even if the majority of authors were willing to see it done.

Authors are, from their nature, bound to advocate cheap books. They all expect great popularity and unbounded influence; they know they can obtain it only by enormous sales, and enormous sales go with low prices. Hence they cannot really wish prices to be high. Many of them are vividly aware, too, that putting a high price upon their books does not mean that sales will be

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made at the fixed rate. The proudest author can imagine a purchaser who would buy him at 87 cents, yet who would pass him by at $1.49. When an author has, like Thoreau, to pack away nine-tenths of his first edition unsold, it is no comfort to him to think that his pile of "collected works" of that sort was at any rate high-priced, that not one volume had been sold at the least per cent. "off." The whole issue taken at a most ruinous discount would please him better.

George Sand, in the account she gave of her publisher, Michel Lévy, the great inaugurator of cheap well-made books in France, touched upon most of the essentials of the entire question. Lévy's root idea was that it was better for both author, publisher, and public, that 50,000 copies of a good book should be sold at four francs than 15,000 at eight francs. George Sand expressed her fears as an author, when the scheme was broached to her. There was a vast clientèle not then buying books at all, she admitted, that might possibly be won. But could it be held? Attracted by the good book at four francs, would it not be immediately captured by the poor book at two francs, the vicious book at one franc? Possibly for a time, replied Lévy; but the appetite for reading, once acquired, would inevitably lead in the end to the best reading. His forecast proved correct, wrote George Sand; the *format* Lévy and the *format* Charpentier overran France. But this was to base too much on her individual success. No author can think hardly of a public which buys him largely; and George Sand could not be blamed for believing the great sales of her own works at a low price a proof of the soundness of French taste. But what would she say to the cheap books the French are reading now?

Under present conditions of publishing and of copyright, the argument that lovers of cheap books are not necessarily lovers of poor books has one great advantage—the cheapest books on sale are the best books on sale. In English, at any rate, the expiration of copyright and the cheapening in the cost of production of a book, merely as representing so much paper, ink, and labor, have placed the treasures of our literature within reach of the poorest. Critics and moralists have little to say about the extraordinarily low prices at which extraordinarily good books may now be had, but the fact is of the highest literary and moral significance. It is no doubt hard on contemporary authors to be subjected in this way to the fatal competition of "the dead hand of literature," as it has been called; but the influence of a readable Shakspere complete for fifty cents, of Scott and Thackeray and Emerson and Hawthorne at incredibly low prices, must be enormous and cannot be bad. At any rate, cheap books, like low prices, have come to stay. Make of them what we may, no publishers and no writers, be they bimetallic, symmetallic, or polymetallic, can alter the hard facts.

THE DUTCH ARCHIVES.

ITHACA, December 11, 1897.

About Forefathers' Day the thoughts of students interested in colonial or American continental history turn toward the archives of the little country behind the dykes which had once so much to do with the Western World, both through its own commerce and colonists and because of its being the shelter-land of the founders of New England. Two pamphlets recently published by Mr. Charles M. Dozy, the archivist of Leyden, Holland, one of which is reprinted from the *Revue Internationale des Archives, des Bibliothèques et des Musées*, gives a bird's-eye view of the historical materials and the system of storage and classification in the Dutch archives. The central depot is at The Hague. In 1802 the historian Hendrik van Wijn was nominated archivist of the Batavian Republic. He was charged with making an inventory of the important documents previous to 1648, and ordered to report from time to time the result of his inquiries. It was not, however, until 1814 that the state documents of a date previous to 1794, and, a little later, those between 1794 and 1813, were brought together in one place at The Hague. In 1854 the present building now in use, formerly the old house of the Deputies of Amsterdam in the State of Holland and later the palace of the Prince of Orange, became the depository. Before this formation of the central depot, one could consult the 'Conspectus of the Netherlandish National Archives,' published by Bakhuizen van den Brink, the archivist-in-chief and translator of Motley's histories. Since 1887 Mr. Th. van Riemsdijk, with three assistant archivists, has had charge of the national collection at The Hague.

The Provincial archives have been organized, one after the other, since 1802. By the Constitution of 1798, which abolished the ancient sovereign States, they were declared national property; yet it was not until 1877 that the centralization of the provincial and national archives was made, and their curators were put directly under control of the national Government. This has, however, been fully accomplished, so that all the depositories and keepers are under direction of the general archivist at The Hague. Since 1878 their reports, as well as their proceedings at the meeting of the archivists held annually at The Hague, are published annually in the periodical *Verslagen omtrent 's Rijks oude archieven*. Thus there is already an imposing collection of volumes giving lists of inventories or printed manuscripts, under the title "Overzicht van de inventarissen der oude Rijks-archieven in Nederland." It is the design of the Government to construct in each of the different provinces, eleven in number, commodious buildings to hold the provincial archives, in which buildings the danger of fire will be reduced to a minimum. At The Hague the new building, already begun, is to stand on the land directly behind the present edifice in use, and is to cost when finished 545,000 guilders ($218,000).

The very large masses of documents which have accumulated in the hands of notaries and are now in governmental possession, as well as the records which still remain in more or less danger of loss by fire, damp, or carelessness in the local communal archives, are not yet accessible to the public, though it is probable that they will be before long. All the provincial and national archives, however, are free to students and inquirers. The large cities of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Dordrecht, and Gouda are still discreditably behind the requirements of the age, making use of old-fashioned, ill-adapted, and not altogether safe edifices for storing their priceless treasures; but at Groningen and Leyden are superb edifices. These latter are built in modern style, with almost every conceivable advantage of light, comfort, ventilation, warmth, and safety; and, I may add from personal knowledge, of courteous assistance for research from those in charge. In addition to the manuscript state records and the great mass of printed matter now accessible in books, are large stores of documents illustrating what we may call the wet side of this very much watered country. Furthermore, the student of charities, sociology, hygiene, organized industry, the military and fire departments, and pretty much all that belongs to the life of a municipality, will find in these provincial and city archives amazing riches. There still await, too, some future Brandt, Gieseler, or Schaff, to say nothing of a possible Motley, Macaulay, or Froude, the records of the Reformed churches, of the Jansenists or Old Catholics, and of the Mennonites—the successors of the Anabaptists. Our own American church historian, Dr. E. T. Corwin of New York, is now at work among the archives of that wonderful Classis of Amsterdam, the mother of Dutch, German, and missionary churches all over the world.

Under the appreciative care of the present Queen Regent, there has been erected to contain the archives of the House of Orange-Nassau a handsome edifice, which is to serve both as a library and as a museum. In its reorganization of the service, the Government has sent to Germany, Austria, and France Dr. P. J. Blok, the present occupant of the chair of Netherlandish History in Leyden University; to Russia, Dr. C. Uhlenbeck; to Dresden and Vienna, Mr. J. L. Berns; and to England, Dr. Hajo Brugmans, to make investigation of documents of importance in Dutch history. This special work has been continued from 1886 to the present time. Several societies, like those at Utrecht and at Leyden, also publish documents of value, particularly such as illustrate literature and language. In 1892 the Society of Archivists was founded, which now numbers forty members and meets annually, publishing also a periodical, the *Nederlandsch Archievenblad*. In this, as well as at their meetings, the technical matters relating to their profession are treated in preference to all others, and historic questions are not raised. At the gathering in 1897, a project for a complete organization of the whole system, general, provincial, and local, throughout the entire country, was to be discussed.

Leyden is to-day the chief city of Rijnland, which is the most important part of Holland for the study of hydraulic engineering and the great enterprises of the Water State. It is also the centre of the textile industry of the country. Its City Hall, where so many of the Pilgrim fathers and mothers

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went to declare intentions of marriage, was for centuries the depository of thousands of papers from A. D. 1400. At the end of the sixteenth century, Secretary Jean van Hout gathered together the records of the secularized convents and classified and inventoried them, making a collection of about four thousand pieces. At the beginning of the seventeenth century, David Van Royen collected and inventoried the precious "Kenningbocken," which to-day gives Leyden a unique collection of materials for the history of the Dutch judiciary.

There were few followers of these careful and conscientious public servants until 1886, when Mr. Charles M. Dozy began his work, bringing order out of confusion, and facilitating reference both by the native scholar and magistrate and the local or foreign students—as many American, British, and German men of research can testify. Still, the danger and the lack of space until recently have been deplorable. In 1891 the Krantz family stepped in to solve the double problem of safety and of room for storage, by offering the city of Leyden forty thousand guilders to erect a proper edifice for archives. In the autumn of 1893, the precious papers were removed to their new home. This very handsome edifice, which I have examined and in which I have spent some pleasant hours, stands immediately fronting the canal into which came the rescue-boats under Admiral Boisot, when they brought loaves and fishes to the starving multitude at the raising of the memorable siege in 1574. It fronts Boisot Kadé (or Quay), and it is but a few feet away from the canal down which the English Separatists moved with their boats when, through the Rapenburg Canal and the Vliet (or Fleet), they journeyed from Leyden to Delftshaven on their voyage to America. There is abundant room for the eighteen thousand volumes and portfolios, which hold papers and parchments antedating 1852. Documents written or printed since that year are still at the City Hall on the Broadway; the three thousand notarial registers of Leyden lie at The Hague, but will some day, probably, be where they belong and become accessible to the public. Apart from American political origins and interests, when it is remembered that the Congregationalists, Baptists, and Mennonites, to say nothing of the Quakers, must look to Holland as their cradle-land, and when the work of the Venezuela Boundary Commission is recalled, one can see in this reorganization of the Dutch archives matter of interest to many of our American students of history.

W. E. Griffis.

POLITICAL CHANGES IN JAPAN.

Tokyo, November 19, 1897.

It is only on the principle that the darkest moment is just before the dawn that the optimists of Japan can extract any hope from the present political situation. It is all confusion and disappointment, compared with what existed during and immediately after the Chinese war. Then it was generally believed that political parties were so well organized that they were on the point of realizing a condition of fair equilibrium between their aspirations and the actual government of the country. But some evil sprite seems to have interfered with their good intentions, and to have succeeded not only in putting a stop to further party organization, but in demolishing much of the work already accomplished. At present all who have looked forward to a settlement of the political struggle between the Parliament and Government are convinced that an entirely fresh start must be made.

It is easy to see from the course of affairs during the past year what the inherent weaknesses of the cabinet were. Count Matsukata, the Prime Minister, is a man of the Satsuma persuasion, and gave up more than one-half of his Cabinet to Satsuma influences. The Choshu element, represented by Marquis Ito, which has hitherto joined with the Satsuma party, has been absent from the present Cabinet, and in its place has been an independent element, directed by Count Okuma, who has for years been the advocate of a more liberal form of government. Count Okuma secured the coöperation of the powerful Progressive party, the successors of the old Progressionists, in the last session of Parliament. By a skilful use of patronage and other more hidden methods, the Government broke up the National Unionists and Liberals, and reduced the Opposition to trifling dimensions. In this way it scored a complete success against its opponents in the last session. The Progressives were rewarded for their fidelity to the Government. Some of them were appointed vice-ministers of certain departments, others were made chiefs of certain important bureaus, and not a few received the coveted positions of prefectural governors.

But the Cabinet, while successful in stifling the Opposition in the lower house, could not save itself from internal dissensions. Never was there less likelihood of long co-operation between the two elements of which the Cabinet was composed. The Satsuma men in Japan represent the extreme wing of the Satcho principle. Their boast is their domineering and uncompromising attitude toward opposition of any kind, their military tastes, and their dislike of parliamentarism. Their chosen field has always been the army, in which to-day they have a paramount authority in Japan. It was hardly likely that the extremists of the Satcho faction would find it agreeable to pull together with so liberal a representative of parliamentary government as Count Okuma. The latter is, above all, the champion of the commercial, educational, and in general the civil interests of the country. It was only the overshadowing reputation of Count Okuma in the sphere of foreign diplomacy, and his influence over a large political party, that made it necessary to appoint him to a Cabinet position. From the start, however, he was regarded as a disturbing element by the Satsuma wing. Rumors of a split in the deliberations of the Ministry began to be heard almost as soon as the Government was secure from attack in Parliament.

The present Cabinet has never succeeded in winning any popularity either from the public or the press. It was tolerated, and might have been tolerated much longer without open opposition had it only conducted the public business in a manner that was negatively free from criticism. But, apart from its own internal want of harmony, it seems to have gone out of its way to arouse popular antagonism. One of its mistakes was the appointment to the Educational Department of a man who, though generally respected, was totally without experience in education. It is commonly believed that the whole organization of this department is in need of reform, and, judging from the length of time that the public have been clamoring for a change, no one can help coming to the conclusion that there is room for improvement. The substance of this criticism is, that the higher officials of the department, instead of concentrating their attention on matters within their proper sphere, spend their time in venting personal jealousies and in political wrangling. Another cause of irritation to the public was the action of the Government in removing certain officials of the Audit Bureau of the Treasury. Several auditors of great experience and character were summarily removed without cause, so far as the public could judge, except to make room for new favorites. It was thought that this arbitrary action may have been due in part to a want of docility on the part of these officials to the demands of the Government. But, whatever the reason, the whole proceeding was denounced in the public press as high-handed and inexcusable.

Both these acts, however, were secondary to the so-called Formosa scandal. The administration of this new acquisition has long been a cause of bitter denunciation of the Government by the Japanese press. The conduct of the officials who have been sent to administer the island is far from what it should be, and has estranged the natives more and more from their new rulers. The civil officials are accused of nearly every sin of omission and commission, of venality, negligence, and disregard of popular rights. It had been expected that the present Cabinet would introduce a better régime in the island as soon as possible after the budget was passed by Parliament; but, far from this being the case, the conduct of the present Administration, according to the Tokyo press, has, if anything, deteriorated. Property and life are not protected against brigands, and crime is left unpunished.

One of the administrative officials of the island, who also occupied a judicial position, a certain Judge Takano, was summoned to appear in Tokyo during the month of August or September. As soon as he arrived, he was put on the retired list—a change equivalent to dismissal from the service. He refused to accept the order, and, in returning it to the department, denied the power of the Government to dismiss him. He took the ground that his office was guaranteed him under the constitutional provision that a judge cannot be removed except by the ruling of a disciplinary court. The order was again forwarded to him, but he resolutely refused to accept it. The Government, however, determined to enforce its authority. It took the position that Formosa did not come within the scope of the Constitution, that it was, as yet, without the existence of a disciplinary court, but was under the special authority of a Governor-General not responsible to Parliament—in brief, Formosa must be considered a Crown colony rather than an integral part of the Japanese empire. Judge Takano still refused to bow to the rulings of the Government. The press of Tokyo strongly backed him up and made him the hero of the hour. At a large meeting held in his honor he gave the reasons for his action in a speech of great independence and courage. In a few words he explained the conditions now existing in Formosa, and how the island was in a state bordering on anarchy.

"Laws," he said, "are well administered

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when they operate in such a manner that their corrective effect is a hundred times greater than their punitive. Justice tempered with mercy is the first principle to be observed in putting laws into operation. The three millions of inhabitants of Formosa are crying out to-day that they cannot obtain security for their lives and property. The reason for this unfortunate state of affairs is that the local police are not sufficiently strong, and the rebels go about freely by day and by night defrauding honest folk who have no means of resisting them, and whose appeals to the police for aid meet with no adequate response."

In the contention between the Government and Judge Takano it seems that the former was not technically wrong. The Constitution of the empire does not as yet extend to Formosa, and therefore the Government had the right to remove an official who was not so much a judge (*hanji*) as a judicial administrator (*hangwan*). But from the point of view of common sense and tact the Government's position is almost indefensible. It assigned no reason for retiring him, though Judge Takano repeatedly demanded from the Government a statement of its grievances against him. Moreover, its action has excited a general belief that the removal was due to the Judge's zeal in exposing the corruption of certain Japanese officials, thus provoking enmity that sought revenge.

Judge Takano refused to the end to submit to the Government's order of dismissal. He returned to Formosa, where he attempted to resume his duties; but the officers in charge were ready to prevent him by force if necessary. The scene threatened to become dramatic, but ended finally in the Judge yielding to the mere display of force. He is now on his way to Tokyo, and at all the important towns in Japan he is receiving the ovations of the people. The whole incident will furnish material to the opposition parties with which to attack the Government during the next session of Parliament.

In the general breaking up of the two chief opposition parties during the last session of Parliament, the seceders were left without any definite leadership or organization. Some of the deserters from the Liberal party (Jiyuto) formed a temporary union known by the name of the Parliamentary Club. It was evident at the time that this was merely a provisional title. At present they have formed a new organization known as the *Kodo Kai* (Reform Association), under the leadership (it is asserted) of some of the Satsuma chiefs of the Cabinet. Whether this body will actually support the Cabinet during the next session of Parliament is extremely doubtful. Some of the newspapers allege that this new party was established for the definite purpose of opposing the Government measures. Its platform is excellent, but is in no wise different from that of any other party; and as its members are chiefly seceders from the older organizations, it cannot expect to secure much popularity. As it numbers about fifty representatives, it may derive a certain advantage from holding the balance of power between the older parties.

Another band of seceders, mainly from the Liberals, has established a separate organization known as the North Eastern Alliance (*Tohoku Domei Kai*). The platform of this party, too, has all the ordinary planks, and is of the most irreproachable kind. Its only novelties are the increase of the salaries of the minor officials and of the members of Parliament, the extension of the franchise and the privilege of representation to the inhabitants of the Loochoo Islands and the Hokkaido. For a time a suspicion prevailed that the condemnation of clan government in the platform of this coterie was merely a subterfuge to cover its real purposes. But this was removed when the leader declared roundly against the present Cabinet. It is now certain that this small faction, numbering scarcely more than fifteen, will be in the front rank of the Opposition during the next session.

Perhaps the most curious miscarriage of the Cabinet during the past six months has been its failure to secure the confidence of the business classes throughout the country. At a meeting of the Tokyo Chamber of Commerce held in the early part of November, to consider the proposed increase of taxes for the coming year, the President of the Chamber gave a long review of the shortcomings of the Government. Among other things he said:

"Up to 1895, the state budgets used not to exceed 80 or 90 million yen, but, in consequence of the post-bellum undertakings, they grew to 200 millions in 1896, and to 240 millions in 1897. The Ito Cabinet compiled a table of expenditures covering a period of ten consecutive years, and the Matsukata Cabinet amended it, making some increases. According to that table there ought to be a surplus of five million yen on the side of revenue in the fiscal year 1898-9, but, on the contrary, there is a deficit of twenty-seven millions. Such figures naturally inspire grave uneasiness as to the future dimensions of the budget. What is to be the limit? What we understand by regulating the finances is not an increase of taxation. Anybody could make ends meet if there was nothing to be done but to collect additional revenue."

A number of members of the lower house, possibly twenty, for the most part business men, who hold the same views as those expressed in the above lines, have formed a Financial Reform Association, the purpose of which is to oppose all further increase of taxation, and to demand a reduction of expenditures, chiefly of the army. In the last session of Parliament the bill was passed to raise the standing army from six divisions to twelve. The members of this association propose to have the increase limited to nine divisions. If the Government accepts this compromise, they agree to support it, but if they meet with a refusal, they pledge themselves to oppose all Government measures to the utmost. As it is hardly within the bounds of probability that a Satsuma cabinet will yield on this point, the members of this organization will throw their influence with the opposition parties. It is worthy of note that this group has at least an intelligent and practicable platform.

All these coteries, hardly deserving the name of political parties, would not seriously embarrass the prospects of the existing Cabinet during the next session, had only Count Matsukata been able to retain the allegiance of the powerful Progressive party and its acknowledged leader, Count Okuma. This party can count at least one hundred members of the lower house, and, had it determined to support the Government in the next session as it did in the last, it could without doubt easily bring fifty more into line so as to secure the necessary majority. But though the Progressives were liberally rewarded for their support in the past session, they have gradually become more and more dissatisfied. They saw that they were not fully taken into the councils of the Government. They lived merely on the outskirts of the official circle, and the Satsuma chiefs never admitted them into inner combinations. Further, as political managers, feeling the pulse of public sentiment, they knew they had gained nothing from their alliance with those in power. Unless they could in some fashion demonstrate that their union with the Government had produced certain beneficial results, they were doomed to lose influence with their constituents. The newspapers were clamoring for certain reforms in the administration, in Formosa and in the Cabinet itself. After the affair of Judge Takano they assumed a tone of indignant remonstrance. The Progressives saw clearly that they must strike a blow for a reconstruction of the Cabinet, or lose every shadow of respect from the public. They finally decided, at a general meeting held in October, to formulate certain demands and lay them before the Prime Minister. The demands were, essentially, the removal of the extreme Satsuma faction from the Cabinet, the reform of the budget, and the reorganization of the administration of Formosa. The most important of these was the first, as it was believed that a unified Cabinet would soon be capable of introducing a more vigorous policy into the various departments of the Government. On the following day (October 21) a deputation of the Progressives was appointed to visit the Prime Minister. The latter received them with courtesy, and asked them whether they came as political friends wishing to talk over the political situation, or as members of a party. To this they replied that they wished to talk over matters of national importance in a friendly manner. The Prime Minister agreed to meet them on these terms, provided the colloquy was not to be published in the papers, but to remain a private matter. The delegates signified their approval of this condition, and then made known their terms.

On the day following this conference the entire discussion between the Prime Minister and the delegates was printed in the regular organ of the Progressive party, and it was represented that there was no friendly colloquy whatever, but rather that the delegates had submitted their demands in the form of an ultimatum, Untrue as the last statement probably was, yet the general outlines of the conference were correctly reported. The Prime Minister thereupon had but one course to take. He transmitted to the delegates a memorandum to the effect that they had not observed the condition of secrecy imposed upon them; and as it now appeared that they had made certain demands upon him, he could only remind them that he held his position from his Majesty the Emperor, and was under no obligations to follow their injunctions or to admit the advice of outsiders. This answer was sufficiently decisive. The Parliamentary members of the Shimpoto met again, and replied to the memorandum of Count Matsukata that they profoundly regretted the publication of their interview with him, but that this was a mere detail. The upshot of the entire affair was the severance of all party relations with the Cabinet, the resignation of a large number of officials appointed to offices from among the leaders of the Progressive party, and finally the resignation of Count Okuma himself.

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The new appointees to the vacancies have been almost entirely of Satsuma proclivities. Never before has Japan had a Cabinet so free from anti-Satsuma influences. But this *pure* Satsuma combination, as the Japanese call it (*Jun Satsu-ha*), has perhaps less support from the press, the public, and the political parties than any cabinet that has held the reins of power since the introduction of Parliamentary government into Japan. Daily rumors are spread abroad of new combinations between the Satsuma clique in power and particular parties and factions, who are to support it in the coming session. But whatever attempts have been made in this direction, they have so far entirely failed. It is almost certain that whatever political parties or individual members support the Government in the next session will suffer in popularity with their constituencies, and no people in the world are more sensitive to changes of public opinion than the Japanese. A general impression exists that the Cabinet will fail in its efforts to secure sufficient coöperation. In this event it will have to resort to dissolution and a new election for relief. An imperial rescript convening Parliament on the 21st of December has been already issued, and, when the session opens, the forces of Government and Parliament will once more oppose each other to decide whether or not clan government shall keep possession of the field. G. D.

Correspondence.

ASSOCIATION FOOTBALL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A few years ago, I felt the necessity of differing from you on the subject of football. But the experience of the last three or four years, while not, perhaps, leading to a complete reconciliation, has led me to believe that your attitude toward the brutalities of the game, as played in America, is one that should receive the attention it well merits. To attempt to do away entirely with a sport which commends itself so heartily to a large community, composed of spectators who are keenly interested in a well-contested competition, and also of that growing number of relegated heroes who once felt the dash of glory on the field, is to rob a large number of citizens of a privilege they have a right to enjoy. But to strip the game of its savage character—better, to substitute something that will satisfy us all, spectators and players—is another thing.

Perhaps my personal experience may be of some value, with this object in view. I began as player, progressed to the position of referee, even being in at the death of a worthy young man, whose life was uselessly sacrificed on the altar of this craze. I have seen many of the so-called famous matches. Chance has been the means of my seeing recently many of the Association games, as played in England and so much despised by us Americans. I am convinced our feeling toward the English game is taken from a lack of knowledge of the game—from never having seen the game properly played, or from having witnessed it with a casual indifference born of the *parti pris* for our development of the Rugby game. I make no mention of the game of Rugby football as played in England, except to concede to national pride that a picked team from our universities could probably hold its own with a team selected from the same ranks here, although eager aspirants for international honors should remember that the great games of Rugby football in England are not played by hastily trained undergraduates. But the Rugby game has its chapter of casualties, and is really popular in only a few sections of England, as compared with the Association game.

To sum up, then, some of the points in favor of the Association game, one can say that, while it is the pastime of small boys, it also can be played with a ferocity that would interest the most blasé habitué of the quondam Springfield games. It engages the attention of athletes in every county of England, who can scarcely wait for the cricket season to close to open with the football. It is witnessed by thousands of interested spectators, who accord it every kind of enthusiasm, and that, too, from men who are as fond of the exciting as we are. It is full of opportunities for fine plays, by pass-kicks and head-punts, and it is eminently suited to our kind of temperament, which finds its most picturesque athletic expression in alertness and running. In the hands of American management, it has possibilities beyond what even the English give to the game. But its great point, of course, is its freedom from the brutal element connected with the Rugby game. As the game is strictly football, practically the whole of the play is done with the feet and legs. Consequently, all attention is concentrated upon those parts of the player's body. The moment a foul is made with the hands or by tripping, or anything unfair occurs, it becomes at once visible, and the whole field cries out, and the referee's whistle brings to light the offending party. Too frequent a repetition of unfairness calls for a vigorous protest, and the offending member is removed. And to be debarred from playing in a league game or a cup tie is sufficient denial to make even the most irascible smother his wrath. As so much of the American game consists in being hurled to the ground, and the attendant consequences, we are naturally shy about playing after the frost has set in, and thus only a limited period can be devoted to the play; whereas the season might be prolonged even through the whole winter.

Finally, the Association game is a worthy substitute for what has surely grown to be no longer a fair, healthy competition; and rather than give up football entirely, we might easily adopt it, while we should be spared those gruesome and silly appendages—the doctor and his appliances—which, necessary and desirable in their proper place, are a burlesque connected with a sport, and render us open to the charge of seeking a cheap notoriety at a small cost. Should we really be so keen over our splints and ambulances if we thought serious danger was ahead of us? Edward Brooks.

Studland, Wareham, Eng., December 7, 1897.

CONGRESSMAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me to enter a plea in behalf of the accurate use of the word Congressman. Naturally, the word means 'member of Congress,' and applies with equal propriety to a member of either branch of our National Legislature. The tendency to restrict its application to Representatives is to be regretted. If that meaning becomes fixed upon the word, then we shall have no simple term by which to designate a member of Congress without indicating his rank.

Calvin S. Brown.

December 15, 1897.

[Our correspondent is not the first to point out this encroachment of the lower house upon the upper; but does it not smack of poetic justice that our debased Senate is implicitly ignored by this assumption of the term "Congressman" by the Representatives?—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

The Macmillan Co.'s latest announcements are 'The Sun's Place in Nature,' by Sir Norman Lockyer; 'Cairo of To-day,' by E. A. Reynolds-Ball; Zola's 'Paris,' the third volume in the "trilogy" composed also of 'Lourdes' and 'Rome'; 'Where the Trade-Wind Blows,' West Indian tales by Mrs. Schuyler Crowninshield; 'Melic Poets,' by Prof. Herbert Weir Smyth, the first volume of his "Greek Lyric Poets"; 'The Science of Law and Law-Making,' by R. Floyd Clarke, of the New York bar; and 'Outlines of Sociology,' by Lester F. Ward, LL.D.

The Sentinel Printing Co., Keene, N. H., has in press 'The Bellows Genealogy,' by Thomas Bellows Peck, from which the biographical sketch of the most eminent bearer of the name, the late Rev. Dr. Henry Whitney Bellows, has been extracted to make a thin pamphlet with portrait (not flattering). This too may be had of the above firm.

Mr. David W. Hoyt, Providence, R. I., now follows up his circulars regarding his proposed genealogical work, 'The Old Families of Salisbury and Amesbury, Mass., with some related families of Newbury, Haverhill, Ipswich, and Hampton,' with a specimen Part I., which will also be the last part unless two hundred subscribers can be found at five dollars for the total five parts. Mr. Hoyt wisely prefaces the family genealogies with early lists of inhabitants of the two principal towns, so that (the scope of the work reaching to the year 1700) would-be subscribers have a good opportunity to judge how much their interest lies in these pedigrees. It is clear that Mr. Hoyt is an expert and careful genealogist, of the best school. On p. 28 he remarks on the numerous errors in Joshua Coffin's 'History of Newbury,' and his consequent resort to the town records for dates of Newbury families included in this book. Nor is this a solitary instance of correction of printed error.

The seventh volume of the *Land of Sunshine* shows a table of contents betraying no falling off in interest and no sign of weariness in the indefatigable editor. The story of the "Disenchanted" Mesa is here retold, with abundant photographs showing the mesa and the ascent of the party which succeeded Prof. Libbey. For the rest we have the familiar text and illustrations regarding the exhaustless wonderland of our Pacific Coast. The first number of the new (eighth) volume is marked by a return to Mr. Lummis's laudable practice of publishing facsimiles of early Spanish-American documents. He now treats of the first American books, notoriously printed in Mexico, and gives us the last page of the 'Manual de

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Adultos' (1540), the third American book; the first engraving, from the title-page of the 'Tripartito' (1544); and the first music, from a psaltery of 1584. The whole subject will be thoroughly discussed in Mr. Lummis's 'Awakening of a Nation,' now in the press of Harper & Bros.

A favorable specimen of the better class of subscription-books is 'Germany's Iron Chancellor,' by Bruno Garlepp, translated by Sidney Whitman. The publishers are the Werner Co., Akron, Ohio, whose "Bismarck Department" is at 78 Fifth Ave., New York. This sumptuous folio is profusely illustrated with a great variety of subjects; portraiture of Bismarck, his family and his ancestors, and his coadjutors, predominating. There are also numerous double-page color prints from historic paintings. On this side, the volume is well worthy of attention. The text falls at once under the shadow of so much illustration, and it is not, in fact, biography of a high order. If proportion alone be considered, one-half the volume is occupied with Bismarck since his dismissal—which is excessive for an anti-climax. Whole chapters are given to his 80th birthday, the visits of deputations, congratulatory addresses, and like demonstrations dear to the German heart. Still, when all is said, the man, his pedigree and his domestic environment especially, are well brought out for study and reflection, by the writer and the photographer. Meanwhile the ex-Chancellor is yet among us, to delay putting the capstone on monuments like these.

Our readers are already familiar with M. Léon Lecestre's recent publication of Napoleon's inedited letters. An English version of them, by Lady Mary Loyd, has just been brought out by the Appletons ('New Letters of Napoleon I., omitted from the edition published under the auspices of Napoleon III.'). This is an authorized edition, but it is a little odd that M. Lecestre's name is nowhere mentioned in connection with it. The translation appears to be adequate but not remarkable; and why should letters to Napoleon's mother be headed and (worse still) indexed as to "Madame Mère"?

'Shirley' and 'Rob Roy' fare better than 'Pendennis' and 'Vanity Fair' in the one-volume series of standard novels now for some time in course of production by Service & Paton, London (New York: Putnams). The longer-winded novelist is punished by being put into small type and a condensed page. In all other respects this is a comely edition, and is tastefully bound.

The same moral is applicable to Bulwer's 'Harold,' which introduces the "Library of Historical Novels and Romances" edited by George Laurence Gomme for Archibald Constable & Co. (New York: Longmans). On the other hand, No. 2, Charles Macfarlane's 'The Camp of Refuge,' has a much more open and agreeable typography. The idea of this series—continuity in historical fiction—is very good, and Mr. Gomme, as his introductions show, does not slight his duty as editor. Besides his analyses of the tales and his annotations, he supplies pertinent antiquarian pictorial illustrations, topographical views, maps, etc., in liberal measure.

Mr. T. H. Robinson's numerous illustrations to Sterne's 'Sentimental Journey' (Longmans) are to be praised for decorative taste and restraint; and the letterpress is excellent. What is noteworthy is that this is an exact reprint of the first edition (1758), save the correction of sundry printer's errors. Those to whom Sterne's emotional and suggestive punctuation is a concern will be glad to have the original to turn to.

By way of contrast we must think 'A Book of Old English Love-Songs' (Macmillan) over-illustrated and decorated by George Wharton Edwards. On a larger page this defect might disappear, for the margins would supply the white now so sedulously ostracised by superfluous head and tailpieces. The designs by themselves are not without merit, though not of the highest. A slight introduction is furnished by Hamilton W. Mabie.

The simplest of Mr. Charles Robinson's pen-drawings for 'Lullaby-Land,' Eugene Field's "Songs of Childhood" (Scribners), are the best, *e. g.*, his gingham dog and calico cat, his shuffle-shoon and amber-locks, etc. The whole has a rather spotty look, and is not a good lesson in taste to the infant mind. The songs, too, have an uneven quality—the poet's eye was not always on the children, especially in his pathetic mood; and part of his humor lies in a vocabulary not by any means infantile.

The new Library of Congress does not lend itself internally to broad vistas. Some idea of it, however, is to be got in detail from the series of heliotype views under the above caption, just issued by Dart & Bigelow, Providence. It is not complete, even in the way of examples—for example, Kenyon Cox's decorations are passed over; and there is a little laxity in designating the objects in each plate.

In writing "about a very little corner of a very great place," especially if the place have gentle memories for many people, it is not difficult to arrest their attention by shocking their sensibilities; but no amount of literary skill will make such perverted success aught but worthless. All the fiction ever written about Harvard is inferior to a volume of the *Graduates' Magazine* in suggesting the eternal verities of the place; but if we must have Harvard stories, let them be wholesome and pleasant ones, like Mr. W. K. Post's—not a *réchauffée* of 'Guerndale,' sauced with brutalities of language in the early manner of Rudyard Kipling, as in Charles Macomb Flandrau's 'Harvard Episodes' (Boston: Copeland & Day). Mr. Flandrau's atmosphere is of one particular club at one particular date; his portraits, though true to nature, are luckily not types; his brilliant cynical conversations are beyond the ken of the average healthy undergraduate—and Harvard College is made up of more than 2,000 such undergraduates; not of the few failures, accidents, and unworthy successes. We sincerely regret that the book is so clever, for its effect, so far as it has any, on outside opinion of Harvard can hardly help being mischievous. Too many people are ready to judge a whole body by what they learn about an excrescence.

The little collection of tales of Barford folk, by W. J. Dawson, 'Thro' Lattice-Windows' (Doubleday & McClure Co.), sombre in spite of liberal sprinklings of humor, may still be counted among the successful attempts to present with fidelity the varied human interests of a remote country village. It certainly reproduces to an unusual degree the curiously mingled charm and unrest induced by continued contact with genuine country life, with "its vital and contented desolation."

With so much good raw material it is a pity that Mr. Henry Seton Merriman should not have offered, as the finished product, a more convincing story than that which he calls 'In Kedar's Tents' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). Entire improbability may easily redeem an otherwise valueless piece of fiction; but a novel in which only the most important incident is improbable, may very well be ruined as a source of pleasure. Would a Carlist conspirator intrust to a wholly unknown Englishman a letter the miscarriage of which would mean death to himself and disaster to his cause, relying only upon the general reputation of all Englishmen for honesty? Or, having risked this, would he, without taking the slightest trouble to establish the fact, stab the Englishman on the suspicion that he had not delivered the letter? It seems unlikely that, even in Spain, such delicately grave responsibilities would be delegated to so unreasoning a human being.

Titian is the latest number in Knackfuss's "Künstler-Monographien" (Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). There is nearly one illustration for every page of the thin volume of 151 pages, and the number is sufficient to show for purposes of study the artist's range of subject and execution. The editor of the series contributes the text.

The next number of the *American Historical Review* will contain some new matter relating to the convention of 1787, derived from the papers of Major William Peirce, member from Georgia. The manuscript, which has turned up unexpectedly in Connecticut, includes a partial record of the debates, much less ample than Madison's, and a series of sketches of the members. Another piece of Peirce's on the convention, from another source, is subjoined. The same number will give the final portion of the posthumous chapter of the late Prof. Tuttle's History of Prussia.

The Camera Club of this city has just transformed its occasional official *Journal* into a punctual quarterly, *Camera Notes*. It will publish with each number "two photogravures representing some important achievement in pictorial photography," besides half-tone prints. The letterpress will go further afield than formerly and be less restricted to club topics. In short, we have here a new journal of photography. The two numbers at hand show a generous conception carried out with distinction, and prove the annual subscription (one dollar) to be very moderate for the return. Mr. A. Stieglitz contributes a charming "Bit of Venice" and an admirable portrait of the late lamented publisher Mr. A. D. F. Randolph, and Mr. F. H. Day his fine "Ethiopian Chief"; the smaller pieces, too, are carefully chosen. The club's address is No. 111 West Thirty-eighth Street.

The second number of *Mazama*, "a record of mountaineering in the Pacific Northwest," is devoted mainly to a description of Crater Lake in Oregon. It is illustrated by numerous interesting photographs and a map. The society of which this attractive periodical is the organ has for its aim not only the increase of our knowledge of the Northwest, but also "the preservation of the forests and other features of mountain scenery as far as possible in their natural beauty."

It is quite impossible to keep up with Mr. Bernard Quaritch's successive catalogues, whose quality is known to all who meddle with books on either side of the Atlantic, but his No. 175 has a rather permanent

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worth in and for itself. It is styled 'Monuments of Printing,' and comprises books produced by the earliest presses in Germany, the Netherlands, Italy, France, Spain, and England from 1465 to 1570. Its three sections are Typography; Xylography (block books and facsimiles); and Bibliography (history of printing). Add the index, which can but be helpful for speedy reference.

Some ten or a dozen block calendars for the approaching year come to us from Marcus Ward & Co., who consult a great variety of tastes with selections from Scripture, Tennyson, Dickens, etc. There is one for Children, another for Ladies, and a third for the American Revolution. The ornamental backing we cannot, on the whole, accord much praise to, as color work or as design. More pleasing in this respect are the knotted sheets designated as "Floral Favorites" and "Violets for Faithfulness" from the same firm.

To the latter class exclusively belong the series published by Frederick A. Stokes Co., ascending from the New Humphrey and Little Sweethearts Calendars (studies of children) to the Longpré (flowers), Lucile (Mme. Lemaire's design for Owen Meredith's poem), A Bevy of Fair Women, and the Sarony (portraits of Ada Rehan, Mary Anderson, Ellen Terry, Fanny Davenport, etc.). Color and photography play here an equal part, with varying attractiveness.

It was, we believe, Louis XV. who could not abide one of the most charming ladies of his court because her teeth were so horribly dilapidated. It was reserved for an American to change all that, and the late Dr. Thomas W. Evans became dentist to the Emperor Napoleon III. and his court, bringing all the appliances which had been invented and developed in this country beyond all foreign competition. This skilful practitioner, who even played a chivalrous part in the flight of the Empress after the catastrophe of 1870, is naturally commemorated by a fellow-Philadelphian, Mr. F. Gutekunst, who sends us one of his well-known imperial photographs of Dr. Evans, in his usual high style of execution.

At the forty-fifth annual meeting of the Wisconsin Historical Society on December 9 it was shown that its books and pamphlets now amount to 192,000—more than half of them bound volumes—with an increase during the last year of 8,695 titles. Progress was reported on the fire-proof library, for which the Legislature two years ago voted $180,000. An appropriation of $420,000 has been since made for so enlarging the Historical building as to afford room under the same roof for the University Library. As next May brings the jubilee of Wisconsin's entrance into statehood, a law was passed by the last Legislature encouraging the formation of local historical societies auxiliary to that of the State. It is likely that not a few will be organized. The fourteenth octavo of the Society's collections is now in press, as is also its catalogue of newspapers, with notes, in 600 pages; the card catalogue of its books and pamphlets is completed.

The 30th of November was the eightieth anniversary of the birthday of Theodor Mommsen, and the great historian, we learn from an article by Dr. Fritz Jonas in the *Rundschau* for December, is still in the midst of unceasing labors, and, despite his fourscore years, has had no time to grow old. The amount of Mommsen's work is vast in itself, but it seems marvellous if one bears in mind that his lifelong scholarly industry has never caused him to neglect the most varied and important political and social duties. On the contrary, his public life, also, has been an exceptionally active one, and he despises those who "take off the citizen's coat for fear of compromising their scholar's dressing-gown." In his earlier years, it is well known, he suffered loss of liberty and position ("for the good of the University") in consequence of his too lively interest in political affairs.

The Ricardo fellowship of $350 will be awarded for the year 1898-'99 to all Harvard candidates for the degree of A.B. in 1898, and to members of the Graduate School and of the Law School, without regard to their pecuniary circumstances. The holder of it will be obliged to pursue the study of the subject ("some phase or phases of the relation of the public to public-service corporations, including the questions of governmental and municipal ownership and management") at Harvard in 1898-'99. Essays of candidates must be handed in not later than September 1, 1898, for award by September 20, addressed to the Department of Economics, in care of the Corresponding Secretary of Harvard University, of whom further particulars can be obtained.

"The Development of the Law, as illustrated by the decisions relating to the police power of the State," is the theme for the essay awaiting the award of the Henry M. Phillips prize by the American Philosophical Society at Philadelphia. Essays must be in the Society's possession before May 1, 1899, and must not exceed 100,000 words, exclusive of notes. The prize is $2,000.

—The Macmillan Company have recently published a Supplement for 1897 (62 pp.) to the 'Handbook of Courses Open to Women' in foreign universities, which was issued last year by the Graduate Club of Bryn Mawr College. The Supplement contains the necessary changes in the list of professors and lecturers, and is, in fact, a useful table of corrigenda and addenda. In all cases, the information given has been obtained at first hand by the editor, Dr. Maddison, from the officials of the universities and colleges concerned. Particulars of the University of Helsingfors, omitted last year, are now included, from which we learn that women who wish to enter the Finnish university in any faculty save that of medicine must obtain special permission from the Chancellor. Curiously enough, no such restriction is imposed in the case of the Medical School. The degree of M.A. was conferred on a woman for the first time, at Helsingfors, in 1882. On April 1, 1897—*absit omen!*—the degree of doctor of medicine was granted to a woman for the first time in Austria, at Vienna. In the field of women's education in England the most important events of the year 1896-'97 have been: the refusal to grant the title of degrees to women who have passed the honors examination of Cambridge University; the arrangement of greater facilities for women to study at Durham University; the opening of a hall of residence for women graduate students at Cambridge; and the foundation of the new Davy-Faraday Research Laboratory in London in connection with the Royal Institution. This laboratory, which has for directors Lord Rayleigh and Prof. Dewar, was endowed and given to the Royal Institution this year by Dr. Ludwig Mond. "It is open, at the discretion of the committee, to all persons, irrespective of sex or nationality, who have done scientific research work, or are judged capable of undertaking it." The permission thus obtained, there is no charge even for materials, chemicals, gas, electricity, etc. With these generous and, we imagine, unique conditions of endowment, we may fitly compare the case of the Zoölogical Station at Naples, where fees to the amount of $400 are paid for the privilege of a table. On page 32 for Adams read Adam; on page 38 for Tomm read Tomn.

—A correspondent, who remembers the publication in the thirties of pension lists, shows that they had other good results besides "spotting" men who were drawing from the Government money to which they had no just claim—indeed, that their publication had another aim. He writes:

"Temple, the pension agent in Rutland, Vt., had lived there for many years in finer style than any other inhabitant. When bills for publishing pension rosters were introduced in Congress, he made haste to Washington, and, joining the lobby who fought against them, perhaps retarded their enactment. After their passage he offered a bribe to a pension clerk, to induce him to omit certain names in the list he was preparing for the press—that is, of men whose pensions had been drawn after their death. Failing in this attempt at concealment, he hurried home—but watched the post-office. After some days he saw a letter there in the box of the United States Marshal which he told the office clerk he would carry to that officer. It was afterwards remembered that he was seen to break open the letter as soon as he had passed out of the door. Its contents were an order to arrest the agent and bring him before a judge who was his next-door neighbor. As Temple walked homeward he halted for a moment to gaze at two boys of his at play in the street. Reaching home he threw the letter into the fire in a stove, took his rifle and told his wife he would see if he could kill a squirrel. Passing by his hired man, who was husking, he exchanged some words, passed round the corner of the granary, and at once shot himself dead. Not only was his own peculation brought to a perpetual end, but the confiscation of his estate largely recouped the Government. Too few of those now following in his steps would commit suicide as he did, but many of them, thanks to a roster, might be made to disgorge, and the moral lesson would be good for encouraging the others."

—Mr. John Russell Young, Librarian of Congress, is reported as saying that the experiment of employing women in the Library of Congress has not been successful. Reports coming from readers there would lead us to agree with him. What better could have been expected from a bevy of novices, knowing nothing whatever of library work? In libraries where assistants are carefully selected, on the ground either of a good library experience or of a library-school education, the experiment of employing women has never failed and never will fail. When female assistants are appointed without regard to fitness, because they have the support of influential Senators or Representatives—and this is exactly the method in which all but the heads of departments have been appointed in the late reorganization of the Library of Congress—the experiment of employing women is sure to fail, not because they are women, but because they are incompetent. Men so appointed would have only this one point of superiority, that more of them probably would have had some business training which could be turned to account. On the other hand, men appointed

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in such ways to such positions are not unlikely to be persons who have failed in other attempts to earn their living, whereas the women may never have tried, and more of them may possess ability and adaptability. But the whole system is wrong. Mr. Young's declaration is only another proof of the wisdom of those who wished to have the new corps of the Congressional Library appointed after a civil-service examination. That method may not, perhaps, give the best possible body of assistants, but at least does not, like the appointment by influence, give the worst possible corps.

—In an interesting paper entitled "Le Voile de l'Oblation," read before the French Academy on the 12th of November, M. Salomon Reinach attempted an answer to one of Plutarch's *Quæstiones Romanæ*. "Why is it," asked Plutarch, "that, in the act of worship, the head is veiled?" The veiling of the head to which Plutarch refers was unknown to Greek rites; but, at Rome, from the last centuries of the Republic, it was a universal custom—except, indeed, in the case of three gods, Saturn, Hercules, and Honos. The etiquette of the veil was supposed to date from the injunction of the seer Helenus to Aeneas (Aen. iii., *seqq.*). It was thus, we are told by Virgilian commentators, that, by the prescience of Helenus, Aeneas avoided an awkward rencontre with his Greek foe Diomede at the moment of sacrifice. Here we have the pseudo-historical explanation, and along with it Plutarch's three solutions: The head is veiled (1) in token of humility; (2) to escape hearing words of evil omen during prayer; (3) as a symbol that the soul, though covered and hidden by the body, adores the god from within. This last may at once be rejected as Pythagorean in origin. The second solution is favored by modern writers on antique usages such as Klausen and Marquardt. M. Reinach dismisses all three of Plutarch's answers, and prefers to connect the custom of the veil at prayer with its use in an altogether different rite—that of the *devotio*, or solemn consecration. Perhaps the earliest trace of this is in the account by Festus of the Italic custom of the *ver sacrum*, the "sacred spring." "The Italians," says Festus, "when they were menaced with great dangers, would promise to sacrifice to the gods all living things born in their midst that spring. But as it seemed cruel to kill innocent children, they were allowed to reach maturity, *were then veiled*, and driven from the territory." Obviously Plutarch's explanations would not account for the ceremony of the veil in this form of *devotio*. Nor would they suit the *devotio* of the guilty vestals who were always completely veiled before being buried alive. M. Reinach considers that the "taking the veil" in the modern form of personal consecration is essentially the same rite. When, in 340 B. C., Decius "devoted" himself on behalf of the Roman army, it was with veiled head that he rushed among his Latin foes. During Cicero's exile, Clodius "consecrated" his house as a temple of "Liberty." The essential rite in this *consecratio bonorum* was the veiling of the magistrate's head for the act of consecration.

—The governing idea of all these acts is that of a gift made to a divinity, and it should be noted that, when the gift is not a human being, it is the *giver* who wears the veil. In the veiling of the right hand, which was customary in sacrificing to "Fides," M. Reinach would trace the same idea of consecration, in this explanation again departing from ancient and modern critics. To the question how the notion of consecration is expressed by a veil, why the candidate for initiation at Eleusis or for Christian baptism at Jerusalem, the Roman bride and her Christian counterpart, conform to the same custom, M. Reinach gives the general answer that the act is that of putting aside and isolating from the world the consecrated object. To admit in this connection, even as an accessory idea, the covering of the eyes of a condemned criminal, is, we think, to carry the thesis too far. Nor do we agree with M. Reinach's explanation of the tragic gesture of Pompeius, who, Lucan tells us, when he saw the swords of his murderers,

> "swathed his visage, for he scorned unveiled
> To yield his life to fortune: closed his eyes
> And held his breath within him, lest some word
> Or sob escaped might mar the deathless fame
> His deeds had won."

It is Lucan's unhappy fate that he lies under the suspicion of rhetoric, even in his finest imaginative touches, and here M. Reinach thinks the explanation too rhetorical to be true. But he out-Lucans Lucan when he interprets the natural movement of a defeated man, suddenly confronted with a violent death, as a religious act of self-consecration to Roman liberty and the Senate. When Cæsar, after a violent struggle with his assassins, saw the uplifted dagger of his friend Brutus, he forthwith covered his face with his toga, and so died. Here again, we cannot follow M. Reinach in thinking that Cæsar, when he felt that he was lost, accomplished the act of *devotio*, like Decius. This slight criticism apart, the paper is an interesting and valuable attempt to answer Plutarch's question by the comparative and historical method—that is to say, by a sort of *étymologie des usages*; a style of investigation for which both Greeks and Romans were curiously inadequate.

—We have received two brochures by Signora Jessie White Mario which deserve the attention of students of social questions. The first, 'Il Sistema Penitenziario e il Domicilio Coatto in Italia' (Rome: Forzani), describes the present condition of Italian penal institutions, in which there is an astonishing amount of inhumanity, due partly to ignorance, partly to indifference, and partly to the perpetuation of semi-barbaric methods. Criminals are neither reformed nor made to contribute to their support—the latter being an evil which demagogic legislators still inflict on many of our own States. Signora Mario suggests as a remedy that the great army of criminals should be set to work reclaiming the three million and a half hectares of waste land in Italy and Sicily, and that habitual offenders of the worst sort should be separated from those guilty only of mild misdemeanors and from juvenile criminals. The value of her study is enhanced by the comparisons she makes with penal methods in France, Belgium, England, and the United States. Her second brochure, 'Le Opere Pie e l'Infanticidio Legale' (Rovigo: Minelli), deals with a still more shameful blot on the humanity of the time—the deliberate letting die of a large proportion of the infants admitted to the *crèches* and foundling asylums of Italy, and the wholly inadequate care given to those who survive. Thus, at the institution of the Santissima Annunciata at Naples, 853 out of 856 babes received in one year died. Comment on such figures is unnecessary. It should be said, however, that all Italian orphan asylums are not conducted in this atrocious fashion. Signora Mario reviews them in detail, good and bad, and points out that the adoption of the best system cannot do away with all the abuses now existing unless intelligent and disinterested philanthropic men and women dedicate themselves to the supervision of orphan and foundling establishments. Her description of the way in which the Neapolitan *camorra* levies large tribute on the funds intended for charitable purposes, sounds strangely like what we have read of New York's *camorra*—Tammany. When problems such as these remain unsolved—and each country has its own—how cheap, how uncivilized, are the cries of those persons who urge that only in war and in preparations for war are to be found motives worthy of a great people. Signora Mario pertinently asks the humane women of Italy who organize Red Cross societies to care for the wounded in battles which may never be fought, whether it would not be better to declare war at once against the legalized annual slaughter of myriads of innocents. Both of her studies afford further evidence of the failure of clerical methods to humanize and to make virtuous the race over which for centuries they had almost complete control. Now, as in the past, some of the most abominable of Italy's charitable institutions are those conducted by pious fraternities and sisterhoods.

IRVING'S ASTORIA.

Astoria: or, Anecdotes of an Enterprise beyond the Rocky Mountains. By Washington Irving. Tacoma Edition. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. i-xxiv, 1-389, and i-xviii, 1-391; many plates.

This classic work has been before the public since 1836, and gone through uncounted editions, in one, two, and three volumes. It has been held by the present publishers since 1861 or earlier, and the latest edition is a sumptuous one, with a duodecimo type-bed on a large octavo page, whose generous margin is partly occupied by an elaborate colored border; numerous full-page plates of greater or less pertinence to the text further embellish this fine piece of book-making. Whatever criticism Irving may have encountered from his contemporaries for this performance has long since been forgotten; the fame of 'Astoria' is perennial, and the witchery of Irving's matchless pen is invincible. No one could now say anything of 'Astoria' which would help or hurt it one iota in public estimation; we should as soon think of attempting to alter the place in literature of 'Robinson Crusoe,' or White's 'Selborne,' or Walton's 'Angler.' No one can be proof against the charm of 'Astoria'; we sat down to pen a brief notice of the handsome "Tacoma" dress Irving has just received, but forgot our business till we had read both volumes through, perhaps for the twentieth time. What we finally made up our mind to say seemed so ungracious, if not also so futile, that we wished to desist. But there are some things that need to be said about this book, since some new light has been shed on the whole subject of

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Astoria by the appearance of the Journals of Alexander Henry, jr. Part III. of that work is devoted to this topic, and raises some questions which would not now be asked if Irving had had access to the Henry manuscripts, notably with regard to affairs at Astoria about the time it was captured by the British, and thereafter, when it was held by them as Fort George. The ill-known route of the Astorians across the continent and back again has come up for determination in the light of recent researches. Furthermore, all the editions of 'Astoria' we have seen have been careful literal reprints—Irving's masterpiece has never been textually tampered with.

We are far from proposing a reëxamination of 'Astoria' either as literature, or in those general commercial and political bearings it had when it was new; nor do we discuss Astor's policy, which writers like Alexander Ross have viewed differently from Irving. Regarded as history, apart from all charm of the telling, 'Astoria' has from the start included a number of errors of fact, chiefly in dates, which no one has hitherto been at the thankless pains to point out. From the standpoint of the geographer, 'Astoria' has never told us where the overland Astorians went. Something might also be said of Irving as of a genius who appropriated his own and transfigured it to his own purposes wherever he found it, as any reader of Brackenridge, Bradbury, Franchère, and Cox would discover. Waiving this latter point, and proposing no essay on 'Astoria' in its broad bearings, we make this luxurious edition of a classic work the occasion to point out some blemishes, individually insignificant, collectively worth noting, which can easily be done away with in future, and then address ourselves to the attempt to trace the transcontinental routes in terms of modern geography.

Chaps. v.-ix., pp. 60-126, on the voyage of the *Tonquin* and founding of Astoria, are more exclusively based on Franchère than Irving's slight recognition of this Astorian actor and writer would suggest. A nearly complete roster of the persons on board occupies Franchère's French original, p. 16, English translation, p. 29. Irving's thrilling story of the massacre tells more than anybody but the dead ever knew, but it can all be as easily imagined as is the new picture which embellishes this edition. The best check on Irving's pen is Ross Cox (p. 63 *seq.*). It is highly improbable that Clerk Lewis was the one who blew up the ship.

Many misdates need to be corrected, some loose ones to be fixed, and some missing ones supplied. P. 36, it is said that Lewis and Clarke (*sic*) accomplished their enterprise in 1804; but they started that year, reached the Pacific in 1805, and returned in 1806. P. 128, the reconnoitring party consisted of Alexander McKay, Robert Stuart, Ovide de Montigny, and Gabriel Franchère; they were gone May 2-14, and Irving's "not long after" means June 15 for the appearance of his "two wandering Indians." This episode is one of the most vitally important of all in the history of Astoria, bearing hard upon subsequent international controversies; for the "Oregon question" might have had another issue if David Thompson had not arrived just in time to be too late. Irving is substantially correct in all he says; but this can now be confirmed in Thompson's own words, from the opposing point of view (see extracts from his journal, in Henry, p. 748, etc.). P. 145, "early in August"; but Franchère says towards the end of July, and reports confirmed "some days after" by Indians from Gray's Harbor. P. 168, "the year gradually wore away"; various incidents are detailed by Franchère for November and December, 1811. P. 185, the missing names of the Missouri Fur Co. are given from contemporary records in the 1893 edition of Lewis and Clark, p. lxxix. Wm. Clark was one of them, and so was the "Mr. Henry" repeatedly mentioned, but never identified by full name. He is the *Andrew* Henry of Henry's fort and Henry's fork of Snake River, who died June 10, 1833, and has been ever since more or less mixed up with Alexander Henry, jr., with resulting doubly apocryphal biographical notices (for the facts, see Henry's Journal, pp. 752, 787, 843, 867, 885).

As to the special itinerary of the outgoing overland Astorians, whom Irving has safe in winter camp of 1810-'11 at the mouth of the Nadowa, he says on p. 193 that Hunt left them for St. Louis "on the 1st of January (1810)"! This sheer slip of the pen or misprint runs through all the editions of 'Astoria' we have seen; truly it is self-corrective, yet it has kept the overlanders hanging ever since between 1810-'11 and 1811-'12 in compiled accounts by careless writers. Hunt is next said to have reached St. Louis January 20—no year named, but 1810 again by previous error; read 1811, of course. Next comes an aggravating blunder, not only not self-corrective, but impossible to rectify on the face of the record. The party having started, at a date unsaid, reach St. Charles "the same afternoon." They started on Monday, March 11, 1811, but we next read, "on the afternoon of the third day, January 17th." Counting the starting day, the date is Wednesday, March 13, 1811—not January 17, 1810, as Irving says for the day and month, and implies for the year by previous error. This right date is supplied by the contemporaneous evidence of the *Louisiana Gazette* of Thursday, March 14, 1811, which says that Hunt left with Bradbury and Nuttall on Monday, March 11. After this bad break Irving's chronology runs right, the next date being March 21, and so on, to p. 274, where, by a slip, "July" 3 appears for June 3, and p. 277, where "July" 5 stands for June 5. Thereafter we believe dates are correct through this volume.

Vol. ii., p. 35, for "Oct." 9 read Nov. 9 (1811). P. 92, for "nearly a month previously" read Jan. 18, 1812 (so Franchère). P. 120, Irving says "Mar. 22" for the date which Franchère, who was on the spot at the time, gives as Mar. 30. P. 144, "June 29" is in question; some say 30; Franchère is out of court, for he gives June 31! On p. 158, the misprint of August 20 in all former editions is now corrected to Aug. 10—the sole correction we have found. P. 269, for the loose date of sailing of the *Beaver*, read Aug. 4, 1812. P. 271, Jan. 16 is either this day or the 15th (see Henry's Journal, p. 761). P. 274, "in the meantime" means Mar. 31, 1813. P. 301 and p. 315, for Aug. 20 read Aug. 4, 1813—so Franchère. Pp. 322, 323, occur four dates in some month Irving forgot to name; supply Aug. 14, 17, 25, and 28, 1813, from the Henry Journal, p. 845. P. 327, Oct. 2 is correct—misprinted September in Franchère. On p. 341, the most important date in the history of Astoria is wrong one day—that of formal possession of the place by the British and change of its name to Fort George. Franchère, who was present and made a speech, gives Dec. 12, 1813, which Irving and all others have accepted. But it appears from Henry, who was there too, and describes the incident at full length in his Journal, pp. 769, 770, that Capt. Black entered the fort at 11 P. M. on the 12th; that they all made a wet night of it, and finished the performance next day, Monday, Dec. 13. P. 345, Apr. 3 as date of sailing of the *Pedler* is given as Apr. 2 by Henry, who saw her off, but Irving's "next day," Apr. 4, 1814, is correct; see Henry's Journal, pp. 865-876, for a very full and entirely new account of the evacuation of Fort George by the Nor'westers and ex-Astorians, with roster of the names, bills of lading of the canoes, etc. This list, taken with another which Henry gives of the occupants of Fort George who did not go away, amounts to nearly a complete muster by name of the persons connected with the establishment in 1813-14.

The strength and composition of the overland Astorians will never be known exactly. In numbers, Irving says, p. 219, "nearly 60 persons." Some ciphering we have done with Capt. H. M. Chittenden, upon internal evidence of the book and other data, gives 64 persons, with probable error of one or two. The arithmetic is too long to print here; the x of the equation may possibly be Pierre Dorion's squaw, who was *en route* (in another sense) at the start, and had her baby by the way. Probably less than half of the party will ever be known by name. Of the 60-odd who started, it appears that only 47 reached Astoria, all in sad plight after horrible hardships and several fatal casualties. We could correct a number of misgiven names, like "Andri Vallar" for André Vallée; but it is hardly worth while to go into such detail. The most obscure name is that of one "Sardpie"; he is Baptiste Gardepied (or Gariépy, as we believe it is now written). "Mr. Breckenridge" is of course Henry M. Brackenridge, the author.

The route of the overlanders is the crux of Irving's work, demanding special attention, which it has never yet received. We must remember that this was the second transcontinental journey ever made through the United States, and that Irving could not tell us where his people went, for the same reason that Biddle could not trail Lewis and Clark exactly—he never knew. He simply spirited them over the plains and the mountains from the Missouri to the Snake River; there is only an air of geography in his narrative, mostly in the clouds. Dr. Coues lately handled the subject in his Henry book, and set up some sign-posts, but was far from recovering the whole route in detail. We have gone over it again, comparing notes as before with Capt. Chittenden, and now have several exact points to make. Irving makes a false start from the Missouri, throwing the route a full degree of latitude too far north to begin with. He locates the Arikara village (the point of departure) "between 46° and 47°"; but it was short of 46°—say 45° 45′. In 1804 Lewis and Clark found three Arikara villages, within four miles of each other, only four to seven miles above the mouth of their Wetarhoo (present Grand) River. In 1811, according to Bradbury and Brackenridge (who were on the spot with the Astorians, and from whom Irving takes his incidents bodily), these three villages had coalesced in two contiguous ones. The site of

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these was some six or eight river-miles above the mouth of the Grand, on the right bank of the Missouri, in present Boreman Co., S. Dak., near but somewhat below the town of Campbell, Campbell Co. *Here* is where the Astorians started, holding a general southwest course over the trackless plains. They crossed "some of the tributary streams of the Missouri"—*i. e.*, two; 1st, Grand River; 2d, Moreau or Owl River—and then came to Irving's "Big" River. Now anybody would think, from Irving's start a degree of latitude too far north, that this "Big" River was the Grand, and thus lose the Astorians on the plains. It was not Grand River; it was the main or Big Cheyenne River that they struck, at an unknown point, probably near the confluence of its north and south forks, which so definitely embrace the cluster of elevations now known as the Black Hills. Exactly where they went through these has never been made out, and probably never will be. Irving's indicia fail, partly because *his* "Black Hills" included everything hilly east of the Rocky Mountains. True, he speaks of "skirting" to the southwest, keeping certain elevations to the right; but this avails us nothing, especially as he presently fetches out on the "Little Missouri." We believe this to be a mistake for the Belle Fourche (the upper reach of the north fork of the Cheyenne), which flows so nearly parallel with the Little Missouri, before it turns, that the two could easily have been confounded. If we send the Astorians through the present Black Hills somewhere in the vicinity of Spearfish and Sundance, and then get them right over the Belle Fourche south of the heads of the Little Missouri, the way begins to grow clear. We soon have them on Powder River, Irving's next definite indication. Where they struck it is uncertain—*probably not far from its main forks.* The Bighorn range is now squarely across the trail; it is crossed at some uncertain point, well towards its southern end, and Irving is next on a river "running north." This is obviously the north fork of Bighorn River. Skirting the next range to the southwest, the Astorians reach the Bighorn itself, probably a little below the junction of Popo-agie Creek with Wind River—for Wind River becomes the Bighorn after this junction. Now we know where they are going—right up Wind River to its forks, through the present Wind River or Shoshone Indian Reservation. At the forks they leave this river to the right and cross the Continental Divide at or near the present Union Pass; directly they are on the head of "Spanish" (present Green) River; down this they go a piece, and over the Grosventre range to the head of Hoback's River (named for one of them and still so called). Down Hoback's River they go to its confluence with "Mad" River—main or south fork of the Snake. Here, on September 26, 1811, we can stick a pin in the map, and set camp within gunshot of absolute accuracy, for the first time since we left the Arikaras on the Missouri! The rest is clear—over the Teton range by Teton Pass, northwest through Pierre's Hole, and west to Henry's fort on Henry's fork of the Snake. This post has been lately fixed nearly opposite the present Elgin, two or three miles from the present Wilford—say ten miles below the mouth of Fall River. For the rest, the Astorians who were not drowned or left in the mountains of Idaho to trap, straggled down along Snake River in several detached parties, and got to the Columbia in various ways, finally reaching Astoria some months apart. It is a thrilling story of suffering, but Irving is fully equal to that, and we drop the painful subject.

The incoming Astorians of next year, 1812-13, took a route for the most part different from that of the outgoers, and in some respects more interesting as well as more definite. The party of seven which left Astoria June 29 or 30, 1812, soon lost John Day, who went crazy and was sent back. It consisted then of six persons—R. Stuart, R. Crooks, R. McClellan, André Vallée, François Le Clerc, and Benjamin Jones. They went up the Columbia and over the Blue Mountains to the Snake, and up this river to some point near American Falls, where the railroad now crosses. They fell in with J. Hoback, J. Miller, J. Rezner, and E. Robinson, who had stayed in the mountains to trap, making now ten in all. Three of these were left again; the party was then seven—the original six, plus Miller. Leaving the Snake below American Falls, perhaps somewhere about Neely, they struck east across the present Fort Hall Indian Reservation to the bight of Bear River (tributary to the Great Salt Lake), and ascended it to the vicinity of the Sublette range, where they turned north from it, up one of its tributaries. This was either Thomas fork or Smith fork; both run south, and either would bring them north to a head of Salt River, which they followed north to its junction with the main or south fork of the Snake River. They went down the latter to a point short of its junction with Henry's fork, and struck across country to find themselves once more at Henry's fort. Thence they retraced the outgoing trail through Pierre's Hole, over the Teton range, up Hoback's River, and over the Grosventre range to Green River again.

This part of the route is recoverable from Irving only with the utmost difficulty; we have no room to present the evidence, but there is no question of the substantial accuracy of the result. (See Henry's Journal, p. 884.) It is hence that the entirely new route continues to the Missouri. Dr. Coues says (*l. c.*) that they "certainly fetched out on the Sweetwater, and so on down to the North Platte"; this is correct, but he sends them over the Continental Divide via the subsequently famous South Pass at the head of the Sweetwater, thus making them its discoverers. Attentive reconsideration of this point induces us to fetch them from Green River about south-southeast to very near South Pass—perhaps within twelve or fifteen miles of it, when they wandered off the Indian trail which would have taken them through this pass, and kept about southeast till they had headed the Sweetwater entirely. Then they struck east, south of that river, and finally fell on it lower down—perhaps via Whiskey Gap, between the Green and the Seminole Mountains. The rest of the way is clear—down the Sweetwater to the North Platte, down this to the Platte, down this to the Missouri, down this to St. Louis. The only question is the location of their long winter camps. The principal one of the two appears to have been on the North Platte about the mouth of Caspar Creek; the other was lower down, toward Fort Fetterman. In determining such points, and generally in reckoning with Astorian travel, it appears from careful calculation that Irving's distances require about one-third off—say an average of sixty-five miles on the ground to every 100 in the book. The seven persons named reached St. Louis April 30, 1813. Their arrival is noticed in the *Missouri Gazette* of Saturday, May 8, and more fully in the same paper of May 15 (vol. v, No. 247). The latter article is the one which forms Appendix 8 of Brackenridge's book, 1814, pp. 297-302.

If any MS. record which Irving used be extant and avaliable, this should be taken to construct a skeleton "key" to 'Astoria'—not that any one should have the presumption or the hardihood to touch Irving's inimitable story, but that the bedrock upon which that work of consummate literary art was erected should be laid bare, and the secrets concealed with such craft of the pen be revealed to matter-of-fact geographers and historians. What Irving needs is not an editor so much as an interpreter. Our remarks do not fully disclose him, but they open the way to that end.

BRYCE'S SOUTH AFRICA.

Impressions of South Africa. By James Bryce. The Century Co. 1897.

We need spend no time in assuring our readers that Mr. Bryce possesses rare qualifications for the treatment of such a subject as that to which he has here devoted himself. The 'American Commonwealth' proved him a master of the art of scientific description as applied to that complex entity which we call a "country." He knows how to estimate the influence of the past upon the future, the interaction of the material and the spiritual, the relative effects of race, institutions, and traditions, and to combine and blend his judgments so as to produce a symmetrical whole. In special lines of investigation and description there are always preëminent experts. We should not expect Mr. Bryce to offer us a treatise on the geology of South Africa or its fauna, but we do expect that his "impressions" will indicate his acquaintance with such particulars, and we are not disappointed.

Take, for example, his explanation of the failure of the Portuguese to occupy the land which they were the first to discover. He provides us with three maps of South Africa, and shows by reference to them that the interior of the Continent could have been in the first place penetrated only from its southern end. The orographical map reveals a range of mountains on the eastern edge of the continent, with a narrow alluvial fringe containing one or two good harbors. On the west coast there is not a harbor for a thousand miles. It was therefore natural for the Portuguese traders to begin their settlements on the comparatively accessible eastern, rather than on the uninhabited and forbidding western, coast. On the eastern coast, moreover, a trade in gold and ivory had been already developed by Arabian merchants, whom the Portuguese dispossessed, while the southern extremity of the continent offered no commercial inducements. But the alluvial strip on which the Portuguese settlements were placed was so unhealthy as to be a practically insurmountable barrier against expeditions to the interior; so that even if the Portuguese had possessed the colonizing instinct, they could not have exercised it.

The Dutch, however, occupied the Cape peninsula as a place of call for water and

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fresh vegetables. The crews of their East Indian merchantmen suffered badly from scurvy on their long voyages, and thus, Mr. Bryce says, "it is from the small beginnings of a kitchen-garden that Dutch and British dominion in South Africa has grown up." For when agriculture was once established, it flourished; and in the dry but salubrious table-land that constitutes the interior of South Africa, pasturage was unlimited. Through the eastern part of this table-land the rainfall, although scanty, is sufficient for grazing, the air is invigorating, and neither fever nor pulmonary disease prevails. As in the case of the New England settlement, the way for the whites had been prepared by the destruction of the natives by pestilence. Impelled in the first place by the natural expansiveness of a vigorous stock, the Dutch were after a time pushed on from behind by the advent of the English, who, in these latter years, have overtaken them, and, as it were, leaped over their heads to occupy regions still farther north. Thus a wave of Teutonic settlement has swept up through the interior, until it has fairly paralleled the coast settlements of the Portuguese, and in some cases flowed down upon them from the highlands.

Such, in brief, has been the course of the European occupation of South Africa; what it has been in detail should be read in Mr. Bryce's admirable narrative. It is gratifying to find that his dispassionate review of the facts leads him to the conclusion that few conquests have been marked by so little wanton cruelty and injustice. Many of the natives have been slaughtered in battle, many enslaved; but neither the slaughter nor the slavery compares in extent or atrocity with that inflicted by the natives on one another. A modified form of slavery, in the guise of compulsory labor for wages, has existed under the rule of the South Africa Company; but it cannot long maintain itself against British public opinion, and in general it may be said that the social status under British rule resembles that which prevails in our Southern States. The climate does not forbid manual labor to the whites; but, having depended on slaves in the first place, they have learned to think that all heavy work should be done by natives. The inferior races, the Bushmen and Hottentots, long since practically died out; the superior Kafirs, or Bantu, under civilized rule, are increasing at a rate which excites apprehension concerning the future. But the problem can never be so grave as it is in India, for in South Africa the whites multiply and do not lose their vigor. It is satisfactory to learn that the curse of alcoholic abuse is comparatively restricted, and that the efforts of Christian missionaries have produced very substantial results.

The name South Africa naturally suggests the recent attempt at revolution in the Transvaal, and although Mr. Bryce came away before the outbreak took place, it was near enough to cast its shadow before it. The particulars of the affair have been so abundantly discussed by the newspapers as to make it unnecessary to review Mr. Bryce's account of them, nor does he attempt to narrate the later details. But he examines with great care the causes that were operating to produce such a result and that continue to operate. His observations are of the same judicial character here as elsewhere, and we detect no trace of national partiality. He is plainly convinced that a continually increasing majority of English-speaking people will not permanently continue to be submissive to the rule of the Dutch minority, if it is to be as onerous as at present, and he especially deplores Dr. Jameson's raid because it tended to postpone inevitable reforms. His forecasts of the future of the Transvaal and of South Africa will be read with the interest that attaches to any forecasts made by so experienced an observer; but it must be confessed that they are not intrinsically of a nature to arouse our enthusiasm.

For, after all, the subject is a small one for Mr. Bryce's powers. He furnishes us with many beautiful descriptions of African scenery, and gives the climate abundant praise. He speaks appreciatively and pleasantly of the various peoples and of their moderate advances in civilization. But the country is comparatively uninteresting, and the dry, clear air, as he says, obliterates all foregrounds. In spite of his efforts to enlist our sympathies—and it would not be easy to do better—we feel that we can get along very comfortably without ever visiting South Africa. Its history has had episodes of dramatic interest; events of great importance (for the South Africans) have taken place within its limits. But they have not been events of such a nature as to affect materially the course of civilization in other parts of the world, and Mr. Bryce half confesses that there is little prospect, except on the general principles of progress, that such events will take place. How many generations, we feel inclined to ask, will have passed away before South Africa can produce any one so competent as Mr. Bryce to write about her?

We must not give the impression that his book is not readable from beginning to end. It is a capital book of travels, an excellent epitome of history, and an admirable political essay. The interest of the reader will not flag from the first page to the last; but he will rise satisfied. He will feel that he has a sufficiently complete acquaintance with the subject; that he understands the features of the country and the character of its inhabitants; that he knows their past and can imagine their future. To be able to enjoy this comfortable feeling of having increased our knowledge without painful exertion is certainly something to be grateful for, and Mr. Bryce will be heartily thanked by the rest of the world as well as by the South Africans for telling their story so well.

LEE, JOHNSTON, AND DAVIS.

Robert E. Lee and the Southern Confederacy, 1807-1870. By Henry Alexander White, D.D., Professor of History in the Washington and Lee University. [Heroes of the Nations Series.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 12mo, pp. xiii, 467, with portraits and maps.

Prof. White's Life of Gen. Lee has been prepared under circumstances which give it some superiority over previously written biographies of the Confederate leader. The author's relations to Gen. Custis Lee, the President of the same university, who allowed the use of his father's letters and papers, gave the opportunity to quote family letters more fully than others have done, and a most valuable source of knowledge has thus been made available. Prof. White tells us also, in the preface, of the range of authorities which he has consulted, and of the assistance he has had from competent persons, and the work bears evidence in itself that industrious and systematic use has been made of the material at his disposal.

To these literary opportunities, however, there are some offsets. Earlier biographies have been written by military men of high rank who were in close personal and official relations to Lee, and who had the advantage of their own knowledge and experience in interpreting a situation when the written evidence is not conclusive. It can hardly be said that the present book will supersede the others, though it will add to them much that is useful and welcome.

Dr. White is especially to be praised for the labor he has expended in verifying the positions of the subordinate parts of Lee's army from hour to hour in the progress of a battle. Such investigation is most useful in fixing a solid basis for judging the progress of events, and no one who has not tried it can appreciate the amount of toil required to bring it to any conclusive result. He has made free use of the work of those who have gone before him in special studies of critical situations, such as that of Mr. Royall upon Gettysburg; and though his method has not included a full current reference to the opinions of others on debated points, the book would be still more helpful if more of this had been done.

A severe taste would have curbed some rhetorical flights and held to a simple style, in keeping with the quiet dignity of Lee himself. In a number of places the word "park" is applied to batteries of artillery in action, though it is confined as a military term to the compact assemblage of guns or wagons at rest and out of immediate use. The word "band" also seems to be a favorite one, occurring in unusual connections, as when it is said of Meade's army at Mine Run that "this host in five bands was expected to seize the Orange turnpike," or of the Confederate armies in Georgia and Virginia that "both these bands were facing northward."

The author's studies do not seem to have reached the official statistical returns of the Confederate armies, and he follows the habit of Southern writers in preferring the loose expressions of combatants who claim that they always fought one against two or three. Occasionally this involves a puzzling problem, as when the 35,000 with which Lee is said to have fought the battle of Antietam (p. 223) become 72,000 when he had retreated across the Potomac (p. 238).

One interesting question, though not at first blush a very important one, is that of the steps in Lee's service by which he passed from the command of the Virginia forces in April, 1861, to the position of General in the Confederate army. None of his biographers has given a satisfactory explanation of this part of his career, and Dr. White's is evidently erroneous. He says (p. 104) that "May 25 marked the change in his military rank from the position of Major-General in the State militia to that of Brigadier-General in the army of the Southern Confederacy. The Confederate Government had not yet created a military rank in the field service higher than the grade of brigade commander; it was Lee's indifference to the mere insignia of office that prevented friction in the matter of lowering his rank." Again (p. 108) he says: "Nominally as military adviser of President Davis, Lee remained in official connection with the Confede-

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rate cabinet. . . . Lee's usual term for Davis was 'the Commanding General.'"

Neither Mr. Lincoln nor Mr. Davis was ever spoken of by military men as "General." The usage in both armies and both governments was identical. The President as Commander-in-Chief always spoke and was spoken of as President. General was a strictly military office subordinate to the President, and a veteran officer of the army like Lee would be the last man to violate law and usage in such a way. The only military title applied sometimes to Davis was that of Colonel, continued by courtesy after the Mexican war, in which he had commanded a Mississippi regiment.

An analysis of the Official Records removes the obscurity which has clung about Lee's promotion, and it may be worth while to clear up the matter. The question of rank was the cause of chafing between Gen. J. E. Johnston and Davis; and Johnston, in his 'Narrative,' gives the dates of the Confederate laws on the subject. Five brigadiers as officers of highest rank in the regular army of the Confederate States were authorized by the act of March 14, 1861, which also provided for their relative seniority according to the rank they had held in the United States army. It allowed six months for officers in the national service to resign, so that the question of relative grade might remain open till September 14. The act creating the rank of General was that of May 16, and gave that rank to the five general officers who had been authorized by existing laws. Davis did not, in fact, complete his five appointments of brigadiers till late in the summer, when A. S. Johnston (for whom he had reserved one) reached the East by his overland journey from California. Among them were J. E. Johnston, Cooper, and Lee, who had been appointed before the Confederate Government was transferred from Montgomery to Richmond in the latter part of May and beginning of June. They had ranked in the national service in the order above stated. Beauregard was a Brigadier in the Provisional (not regular) army, and was promoted to General after the battle of Bull Run.

On the 23d of April, Lee had been made Major-General and commander of the Virginia forces; that State, in the interval between secession and admission to the Confederacy, assuming to be an independent republic. At the same time J. E. Johnston was made a Major-General of Virginia troops under Lee (O. R., ii., 775, 783).

On the 10th of May, Virginia having been admitted to the Confederacy, and troops from other States pouring in, the Confederate Government telegraphed to Major-General Lee, "To prevent confusion, you will assume the control of the forces of the Confederate States in Virginia, and assign them to such duties as you may indicate, until further orders, for which this will be your authority." This was embodied in General Orders No. 13 from "Headquarters Virginia Forces," which directed all officers and organizations of the Confederate army to make reports to him. The order was signed, "By command of Major-General Lee, R. S. Garnett, Adjutant-General" (O. R. ii., 827). It was the familiar case of an officer of militia serving in a higher rank than that which he held in the regular army: Rosecrans, Sherman, Meade, and others served in a similar way on the national side.

On the 15th of May, J. E. Johnston was notified of his appointment as Brigadier-General in the Confederate States army and assigned to command at Harper's Ferry (*id.*, p. 844). The organization of Virginia troops was changed so as to drop the rank of Major-General except for Lee as commanding in chief, and Johnston was offered a State commission as Brigadier. Between the two he chose the Confederate States commission in the regular army ('Narrative,' p. 13). Lee continued to sign his name as "Major-General commanding" until May 25, when he changed his style to "General, commanding," which he permanently retained thereafter. His headquarters, however, he continued to designate as Headquarters Virginia Forces until June 8. On the last-named date he published, in General Order No. 25, Governor Letcher's proclamation that Virginia was admitted as a State into the Confederacy, and that her military forces were transferred to the command of the President of the Confederate States (O. R. ii., 911). From that time Lee's orders and communications were dated from "Headquarters of the Forces," or simply "Headquarters."

On July 20, J. E. Johnston having inquired as to his and Beauregard's relative rank in view of the expected junction of their forces at Bull Run, Mr. Davis telegraphed him: "You are a General in the Confederate Army, possessed of the power attaching to that rank" (*id.*, p. 985). It seems clear that Mr. Davis and his cabinet accepted the conclusion that the law of May 16 conferred of its own force the rank of General on those who had been made Brigadiers under that of March 14, and that the President did not give them any new appointment. Johnston had expected some formal notification, but got none. He was told on July 20, not that he was appointed, but that he was already a full General. Lee had got the same information as early as May 25, and quietly assumed the rank in his communications and orders from that date.

It is also plain that Lee's authority to command in Virginia was recognized after June 8 as it was before, and his series of General Orders runs on consecutively. It must be assumed, therefore, that Mr. Davis regarded the former order putting the Confederate forces in Virginia under Lee as still in vigor, the transfer of the Virginia troops and Lee's accession to the highest grade in the Confederate army having strengthened instead of weakening its applicability. His personal command continued "until further orders," and no further orders had been issued. Lee had never been assigned to duty in his grade of Confederate Brigadier, but served as Virginia Major-General till he passed at once to the rank of full Confederate General. But on the 29th of July, General J. E. Johnston challenged Lee's seniority. He said to the Adjutant-General that he was receiving daily orders coming from "Headquarters of the Forces," which "I cannot regard, because they are illegal" (O. R. ii., 1007). He referred to his letter of the 24th, in which he seems to have taken the ground that the act of May 16, in giving the new rank of General to those who had been Brigadiers, left the relative seniority of the Generals the same as that which they had as Brigadiers; that Lee was therefore his junior and could not give him orders. Precedent and the army regulations seem to sustain Johnston.

The battle of Bull Run had already caused irritation between Mr. Davis and the three senior officers on that field, and the Confederate President was not disposed to yield to Johnston's claim. He sent nominations of the Generals to the Senate for confirmation, affixing arbitrary dates to them, so that Johnston was made fourth instead of first; and when these nominations were confirmed, the disappointed General found no practicable way to contest the matter further. He protested vigorously, and a lasting enmity between him and Davis resulted. Lee took no part in this quarrel, and avoided the appearance of giving orders to Johnston thereafter. His going in person to command in West Virginia was probably, in part at least, to avoid complications until the Senate should act. That he went on his own motion, and that Mr. Davis desired him to return and resume actual authority under the existing orders which had not been revoked, sufficiently appears from their correspondence (O. R. v., pp. 767, 828). As soon as his fall campaign against Rosecrans was over, Lee was assigned (November 5) to command a department of the Southern coasts. Early in the following spring (March 2) Davis urgently requested him to return to Richmond (*id.*, vi., 309, 312, 400). The confirmation by the Senate of appointments expressly ranking by particular dates was held to settle the question of relative seniority. The whole chain of events indicates Lee's determination to avoid mixing in the controversy between Davis and Johnston, and his unwillingness to become a party to any strife over his own rank.

The episode is an interesting one in itself as throwing a very instructive light upon all three of the prominent characters involved. Its consequences were visible through the whole war, and the antagonism between Davis and Johnston brought increasing mischief to the Confederate cause. An incidental result was Johnston's dismissal from command in Georgia in 1864. Another was the later act of the Confederate Congress making Lee General-in-Chief, when he again called Johnston to active duty in the closing campaign of the great struggle.

An Epistle to Posterity: Being Rambling Recollections of Many Years of My Life. By M. E. W. Sherwood. Harper & Bros. 1897.

Mrs. Sherwood is entitled to have her letter read by posterity, if for no other reason, because of her great acquaintance. She literally has known everybody who has had any social existence in New York, and has enjoyed a very considerable international acquaintance besides. From Daniel Webster and Van Buren to the latest arrival from England, all notabilities have passed under her eye, and the result is, that the reader can find in her pages something or other about any noted character of whom he has heard. A great deal of the pleasure given by every such book of reminiscences consists in the fact that through it we obtain a glimpse of great people to whom we cannot by any possibility be introduced in the flesh. The earlier chapters of the book are the best, and bring back the education and adventures of a well-brought-up American girl sixty years since quite vividly. Contemporaries have frequently tried to give posterity an impression of the extraordinary effect produced by Webster's brow and eyes—Carlyle, if we remember right, among the number. Mrs. Sherwood tells a

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story of a kitchen-maid whom Mrs. Webster could not reduce to submission. Webster said, "Send her to me." When she came in he simply looked at her, upon which she cried out: "Don't do that; don't do that. I will scrub the buttery."

As the account goes on, it becomes a little journalistic, suggesting a devotion on the part of the author to the gossip which pays; but why not? The author is not a critic, but a looker-on; and if she be professionally social, she always avoids the rôle of intruder or scandal-monger. Indeed, her tendency is to make out society better than it is, and she declares that "it has been a perpetual pleasure to me to see luxury march on with giant tread"—a much more wholesome frame of mind than that of Cynicus, who, after getting as much of the luxury as he can, denounces the age as wanting in simplicity, and scores fashion for not being frugal and wise. Mrs. Sherwood's last chapter shows that she knows exactly what fashion is. What it tends to be, she does not trouble herself much about. She says very frankly that it is a business, carried on for certain well-defined objects. It evidently differs from the business of manufacturing pig-iron or gas in the fact that it is not carried on to make money, but to spend it. In a city in which it is entirely divorced from serious pursuits, and is not the fashion of a court, or nobility, or governing class, it must, of course, have peculiarities of its own. Mrs. Sherwood very justly says that there is no royal road to fashionable life; that many are called, but fewer chosen; and that the tyranny of fashion is an inscrutable mystery—an observation which shows that she is much shrewder than any mere man like the late Ward McAllister, who undertook to explain it all, and merely succeeded in giving the erroneous impression that the whole affair was a sort of "continuous performance" carried on at so much a head, under his own supervision.

The Gun and its Development. By W. W. Greener. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Although the first edition of this book was issued in 1881, the present, which is the sixth, makes it practically a new work. Since 1881 so numerous and rapid have become the changes and improvements in firearms that the type of one year is superseded by that of the one that follows. In order, therefore, to keep in touch with the evolution of gunnery, a book treating of the art is necessarily subject to frequent revision. Mr. Greener is thoroughly alive to this fact, and in the latest edition of 'The Gun,' which is brought up to October 1, 1896, he tells of all that has been accomplished towards the perfection of small arms to that date. That the lapse of a single year necessitates still further revision, we have exemplified in the commencement, within a few weeks, of the issue to the German infantry of a new small-bore repeating rifle, of the mechanism of which no one outside the military establishment of Germany has accurate knowledge. Mr. Greener gives a cut of and describes the German army rifle; but that weapon is now in process of supersession by the later and possibly improved arm. Since 1872 this is the third rearmament of the German infantry.

So far, actual experience has not revealed that, apart from rapidity of fire, the modern army small-bore magazine rifle is any more destructive at close quarters than the old smooth-bore musket. During the present disturbances in India a body of fifty insurgents charged upon a small detachment of British infantry armed with the Lee-speed magazine rifle, from a distance of fifty yards. During the rush of the enemy over this limited space the English fired seven hundred shots; yet more than half of the insurgents reached, untouched, the British bayonets. It is the experience of the sportsman, and this fact is strongly emphasized by Mr. Greener, that for accurate marksmanship every gunner should have the stock of his weapon specially fitted, in length, bend, cast-off, and in the shape of the butt, to his physical conformation. To make accurate shooting possible through the use of the modern small-bore military rifle by bodies of infantry, the stock of the gun of each individual soldier should be fitted to him. Of course, this is impracticable. Were it practicable, the total of casualties would be far more in proportion to the immense power and rapidity of fire of the modern military small arm than we have evidence of, so far as it has been employed in actual conflict.

Since the issue of the first edition of Mr. Greener's work the perfecting of small arms has made enormous progress. This had its first impulse in 1870, from which time we may date the general use of the breech-loading system. Previous to 1795 there was no trustworthy method of ascertaining whether a gun-barrel was or was not perfectly straight. Some years ago a fine collection of guns made by the most famous mediæval gunsmiths were tested, and not a single one was discovered that possessed a straight barrel. In 1795 a method of straightening gun-barrels from the inside was perfected by a Birmingham mechanic. A few years later another plan was devised, called the shading process, which ever since has been generally employed. Prior to 1870, next to nothing was known of the art of gun-barrel boring. The principle was not thoroughly understood until choke-boring came into use. This completely obviated the defect that previously was almost universal with double-barrelled shot-guns, of the right-hand barrel shooting with more accuracy than the left one.

It is generally supposed that the marvellously perfect guns of to-day are in their inception the product of modern invention. There is no greater fallacy. All that our gunsmiths have contributed in the way of original discovery in the art of gunmaking is found in the process of straightening and accurate boring of gun-barrels, the automatic cartridge ejector, and the percussion system; to these may be added the discovery of nitro-explosive or smokeless powders, which have contributed largely to the effectiveness of modern firearms. Of military weapons an entirely modern and original conception is the automatic machine gun. The mechanism for loading and firing is, after the initial discharge, operated by the gases of the powder.

The breech-loading system, which at this day is universally adopted, was employed in cannon as early as 1388. The powder only, however, was inserted in the breech block or movable chamber; the projectile was inserted by way of the muzzle. Breech-loading small arms were in use at the time of Henry VIII. of England. A hunting arquebus on this system, used by that monarch, is in the Tower of London. They were also in common use in Germany early in the sixteenth century. Henry IV. of France is said to have invented a breech-loading arquebus with which some of his troops were armed. The revolver was in use at the time of Henry VIII. The magazine, multiple-charge or repeating gun was made in the first years of the seventeenth century. The hammerless gun was invented early in the last century. In the Paris Museum there is one, a breech-loader, of the date of 1779. The single-trigger device for two-barrelled pistols was in use in the last century. The choke-bore system, applied to shot-guns, was employed in France in 1781. This brief résumé reveals that our modern gunsmiths, with the exceptions noted, are mere adapters. They have simply brought to great mechanical perfection systems and devices that originated none less than a hundred years ago.

To those who are interested in the subject, Mr. Greener's clear, lucid, and exhaustive treatise, free from technicalities, will prove most instructive and entertaining. There are no omissions—not even that of a comprehensive and satisfactory index. Mr. Greener gives an historical review of small arms and cannon from the earliest times. He describes the systems and devices used in modern and ancient guns; the present methods of construction, the shooting capabilities of modern shot-guns, pistols, and rifles, and the various sorts of ammunition and accessories to make them effective. He also explains to the novice how to use the gun. The book is copiously illustrated with cuts that not only give the external appearance of the various weapons and accessories described, but include skeleton diagrams of the working or mechanical parts.

Marchesi and Music. By Mathilde Marchesi. Harpers. Pp. 301.

"Vanity, thy name is woman," is the thought which obtrudes itself like a headline on the reader's mind as he turns page after page of these memoirs of a teacher of singing. But then, had she not a right to be vain? True, she seems to have been a failure as a singer (though only her successes are recorded here), but did she not give more or less instruction to most of the prominent prima donnas of our time, from Di Murska, Gerster, and Nevada to Calvé, Melba, and Eames? And were not all the great composers of the time eager to know her, to write notes to her and motives in her album? To be sure, some composers have been so rude as not to agree with this great woman. Rubinstein once behaved in a very bearish manner (246-7) towards her, insisting, in his brutal way, that girls studying for the Russian stage should learn to sing in the Russian language. Of course she "did not share his views," being of the opinion that the Italian florid school which was popular in her youth is all that anybody needs. But Rubinstein's impertinence was nothing compared to the effrontery of Wagner, who, while conversing with her one day at Vienna, declared his opinion "that every voice should be at the composer's command." Mme. Marchesi retorted with crushing frankness that "the composer must take into consideration the compass of different voices, by which interpretation, pronunciation, and declamation must naturally benefit."

It is a pity that Mme. Marchesi should

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have marred her book with her irrepressible conceit, and her vain doctrine that the antiquated art of florid song, which is mere technical skill, without ideas or emotions, is the only kind of song; for otherwise her book has some interesting things to commend it. In the course of a long professional career, when it was a sort of Parisian fad to study with her, she met many eminent musicians, and she tells about them in an entertaining way. All the Parisian composers frequented her studio—there is no doubt of that—and she also met the leading German and Italian masters, not all of recent date. Rossini, for instance, was one of "our dear friends" who wrote in her album and invited her to his house, where, however, she found things "neither interesting nor pleasant. There was never any music, nor was it ever mentioned. The prevailing tone in the salon of the hostess was stiff and formal in the extreme"; and no wonder, for Mme. Rossini troubled herself very little about her guests, but gave all her attention to her sick dog. She must have been an odious creature, this Mme. Rossini, for our author herself was a witness when, "at an evening party in their own house, she reproached a lady for having taken ices twice." Of Rossini's remarks to Mme. Marchesi, one is of special interest. He declared that he preferred low voices, and that "singers who use not only the *voce di testa* (head-voice), but also *voce di capilli* (hair-voice)"—by which he meant the high c sharp, D, E, and F—"these offend my ear."

Mendelssohn was another of the older composers whom Mme. Marchesi knew well. She often found him seated at a table helping his children with their lessons. When there was music *en famille*, he took sometimes the tenor, sometimes the bass parts. "He never spoke of himself and his works." In Paris she met Liszt's mother, whose famous son was naturally enough the sole theme of her conversation. At Weimar, afterwards, she saw a good deal of Liszt himself. She found him cosmopolitan in taste, the leading champion of Wagner, but also a great admirer of Rossini. Once she aroused the jealousy of the Princess von Wittgenstein because Liszt wanted to leave the Princess and accompany her to a rehearsal. We also get a glimpse of Meyerbeer, whose mother told Mme. Marchesi that when her son went to Vienna as a pianist, he made the acquaintance of Beethoven and Clementi, "but the presence of these eminent pianists made him so nervous that he announced that he had injured his hand, and, bandaging it, he rushed away from the city without playing a note."

Mme. Marchesi has had a number of American pupils. With the majority, she says, the main idea is to get famous in a hurry. When parents bring their daughters to her, they generally ask, "How long will you keep her?" or "Please make it as short as possible," or "What is my daughter's voice worth?" or "Will she learn as much as Patti?" Our author has some excellent remarks on charlatan teachers.

Hallucinations and Illusions: A Study of the Fallacies of Perception. By Edmund Parish. [Contemporary Science Series.] Scribner. 1897. 8vo, pp. 390.

Among the most important of recent works adverse to telepathy is this of Parish, the bulk of which has already appeared in German. Its main purpose is to propose and defend a theory of the cerebral physiology of hallucination. To read it critically requires some knowledge of the anatomy of the brain and some acquaintance with the Nancy doctrine of hypnotism. Even with that equipment it cannot be read rapidly. Of the theory itself, we shall merely say that it is the one which Occam's razor requires that science should thoroughly try first. It is likely enough eventually to be modified, but at present it cannot be refuted, and it is simpler than any other. It has the great advantage, from the investigator's point of view, of connecting abnormal hallucinations with dreams and the sensory deceptions of health, for we cannot take a step toward the explanation of any phenomena until we can bring them into continuous connection with common experience. There is no science of anything but the ordinary course of nature. The author finds that all fallacious perception—and he shows that hallucination is perception—requires for its occurrence a state of *dissociation*; that is to say, a "state in which the nerve-stimulus no longer flows through the channels determined by habit and by the coöperation of simultaneous stimuli, because inhibitions or obstructions, whether from pathological or physiological causes, have been set up in the normal association-paths, or obstructions which normally exist in other connecting tracts have been weakened or altogether abolished." Such is a half-waking condition. Former writers distinguished between "illusions," or fallacious perceptions, and "hallucinations," which were supposed to be creations of the brain. But Mr. Parish argues that there are no hallucinations, in this sense. He gives the name hallucination to those deceptions which arise from a nervous discharge through an unusual channel, or, as he says, "by an act of forced association" (he uses association in the German sense, for the actual discharge of one centre upon another, not in the English sense, for the habit which regulates such a discharge). He restricts the term illusion to cases in which there is a lack of correction or adjustment of a perception owing to the blocking of an association-path.

If by telepathy be meant any mode of communication not generally recognized, then Mr. Parish, who believes people can communicate subconsciously at some distance by whispering with the mouth shut (according to the experiments of Hansen and Lehmann), may be reckoned as a supporter of telepathy. But if it means more than that, then it is contrary to Mr. Parish's contention that all hallucinations and illusions are to be explained by his theory. He is, therefore, led to devote a long chapter to the examination of the evidences of telepathy, wherein are contained some cogent objections.

Granting that the only mental causation is in reality physiological and cerebral, and granting that one molecule of nerve-substance acts upon another by attraction at a distance, we substantially admit a sort of telepathy for distances of that order. But were there so great stress of mind upon mind that one man's soul could cause a gross and vivid hallucination in another's, many miles away, one would think that within the enclosure of one skull nerve-fibres would hardly be needed. Still, it may be the telepathists are right. It would not be at all surprising to anybody who fairly estimates how much and how little science has yet won, to find some day that there were more things in heaven and earth than even *our* philosophy dreams of. But then there is no course for science to pursue but patiently to trudge on step after step, picking her way. She must admit new agencies when they have to be admitted, but not before.

On Blue Water. By Edmondo de Amicis. Translated by Jacob B. Brown. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Those who enjoy descriptions of the scenery of the ocean will find some splendid examples of "word-painting" in this book. The author not only has the eye of an artist, but is also a master of language, to say nothing of his gift of poetical imagination. So far as the translation is concerned, however it may be in respect of fidelity, it is eminently praiseworthy in its results. The English is perfect, but with just that suggestion of Italian which gives piquancy, like the foreign accent which one often finds so agreeable in the speech of well-educated persons who have acquired our language.

Descriptions of the shapes of the clouds and the hues of the ocean, however, are not to be described, nor is it worth while to quote from them, even if they are exceptionally magnificent. In this case they come in naturally as incidents of the voyage, and there we may leave them. There are other descriptions in the book less pleasing, indeed, but more instructive. The author appears to have made the voyage from Genoa to Buenos Ayres in the steamer *Galileo*, in company with a few cabin passengers and fifteen hundred emigrants in the steerage, simply to observe human nature. Nearly the whole of the book is taken up with studies of character, slight, but extremely clever. So far as his cabin companions are concerned, his sketches are entertaining enough, but with one exception they arouse no deep emotion. But "the young lady from Mestre," in the grasp of death, but spending what was left to her of strength in deeds of mercy and sympathy, is too beautiful and pathetic a figure to fade quickly from the reader's memory. She seems, in truth, to purify the whole atmosphere of the ship, which would otherwise be disgusting enough. For it is the wretched emigrants that, after all, figure chiefly in the book. Loathsome from disease, from poverty, from toil; most loathsome from moral degradation and uncurbed passions—the author yet takes them to his heart in generous and patriotic sympathy. Victims of numberless ages of grinding oppression, even now hardly less cruel than formerly; condemned to starvation whether they toil or not—how is it possible to judge their ignorance and feebleness harshly! Their very hilarity distresses the author by its thoughtlessness, and, as he watches the forlorn procession leaving the ship, he cries out with shame:

"Endless, most pitiful! Family after family, children and yet more children; city faces and country faces, from northern Italy, from southern Italy; good honest creatures, brigands, invalids, ascetics, old soldiers, beggars, rebels, passing ever faster and faster, as if urged by the dread of not reaching America in time to get their bit of bread and their strip of earth. And at the back of all this grievous misery, imagination held up to me, as in mockery, the patriotic rejoicings of the idle, the prosperous, and the unthinking, as they shout with holiday enthusiasm on the banner-dressed and glittering squares of Italy. I felt a humiliation

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which made me shun the regard of foreigners who were on the ship with me, and whose affected exclamations of pity and surprise were only so many reproaches to my country. And still those ragged garments, those white hairs, those withered women, those children without a country, that nakedness, that shame, that misery kept filing on."

And yet this pitiful horde forgot everything, in the very moment of disembarking, to murmur to their angelic benefactress, "the young lady from Mestre," greetings in which there seemed to go out to her "all the good and all the purity which the bitterness and sorrow of a toilsome existence" had left in them.

German Orthography and Phonology: A Treatise with a Word-List. By George Hempl, Ph.D., Professor of English Philology and General Linguistics in the University of Michigan. Boston: Ginn & Co.

This manual meets a want that has long been felt alike by teachers and by students of the German language. Only too often in reading aloud they find that they do not know how to pronounce a proper name or a word of foreign origin, or are at a loss on what syllable or word to place the stress; in many cases, too, the teacher is unable, from lack of proper training in phonetics, to define the true character of a sound. On all these points, and on many more, the necessary information can be obtained from this book.

It is fortunate that a man of Prof. Hempl's scholarship has undertaken the work, which required a complete mastery, not only of the German language and its history, but also of phonology. As a matter of course, the author has made use of all the important books on his subject, and is to be commended highly for having taken such pains in collecting material from different sources and making it, as the Germans say, *mundgerecht*. Prof. Hempl has also added a considerable amount of original work, which entitles the book to a high rank among publications of this kind. Especial mention should be made of the chapters on Word-Stress and Sentence-Stress. Another subject not usually treated in grammars is the development of German type, and to this the author devotes a whole chapter. Here are traced the various influences which have brought about changes in the styles of printed and written characters—changes which are amply illustrated by examples.

Everywhere the author has aimed at completeness; thus, in the matter of orthography, he has not confined himself to the so-called Prussian system, but discusses also the official orthography of Austria and Switzerland, and enumerates the principal deviations. In his word-list we find that the pronunciation of no one province has been preferred to that of any other, but wherever differences exist they have been noted. For the phonetic transcription of the words, Prof. Hempl has had to make use of a rather elaborate system, the key to which looks somewhat forbidding. The learner can, however, with some effort master this difficulty, which was unavoidable, since the author's object was to reproduce the words precisely as they are spoken. This word-list has not yet appeared in full, but may shortly be expected, together with a complete index, by which the value of the present volume will be further enhanced.

There are some points of minor importance on which one may differ with the author. In a few cases it might have been better to be a little more explicit. For instance, the average reader can hardly be expected to know what the "Sabellic" and "Venetic" alphabets are. In other cases too much space, perhaps, is given to a subject. One may also doubt whether the expression "mutated vowels" (in place of the time-honored "modified vowels") will meet with final acceptance. But these trifling matters by no means impair the value of the book, which is sure to become indispensable to students of the German language, and they ought to be grateful to Prof. Hempl for his assiduous and scholarly labors. Thanks are also due to the publishers, who have produced a book which, with its beautiful reproductions of types and in its whole make-up, is a credit to American printing.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Mary M. The Choir Visible. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.50.
Adderley, James. Paul Mercier: A Story of Repentance among Millions. Edward Arnold. $1.25.
Bacon, Commander R. H. Benin, the City of Blood. Edward Arnold. $2.
Barton, W. E. Sim Galloway's Daughter-in-Law. Boston: Pilgrim Press.
Bishop, Mrs. Isabella Bird. Korea and her Neighbors. F. H. Revell Co. $2.
Briscoe, Margaret S. Jimty, and Others. Harpers. $1.50.
Columbia Verse, 1892-1897. W. B. Harrison.
Commelin, Anna O. Not in It. Fowler & Wells. $1.
Crockett, Rev. W. D. A Harmony of Samuel, Kings, and Chronicles. New York: Eaton & Mains. $2.
D'Alviella, Comte Goblet. Ce que l'Inde doit à la Grèce. Paris: Leroux.
Edridge-Green, F. W. Memory and its Cultivation. Appletons. $1.50.
Elton, Emily D. A Mince Pie Dream. E. R. Herrick & Co. $1.25.
Fisher, S. G. Men, Women, and Manners in Colonial Times. 2 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Fuller, Hulbert. Vivian of Virginia. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.75.
Gray, Maxwell. Sweethearts and Friends. Appletons. $1.
Greene, Waverly. George Forest. G. W. Dillingham Co. 50c.
Haines, H. S. American Railway Management. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: John Wiley & Sons. $2.50.
Handbook to Christian and Ecclesiastical Rome. Part II. The Liturgy in Rome. London: A. & C. Black.
Loyd, Lady Mary. New Letters of Napoleon I. Appletons. $2.
Mackie, Pauline B. Mademoiselle de Berny: A Story of Valley Forge. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.50.
Protestant Episcopal Almanac and Parochial List. Whittaker. 25c.
Seawell, Miss M. E. The Rock of the Lion. Harpers. $1.50.
The Century. May-Oct., 1897. Century Co.
The Little Dame and the Wild Animals. 2d ed. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins.
The Tragedy of Hamlet. With Illustrations by H. C. Christy. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Thwaites, R. G. Afloat on the Ohio: An Historical Pilgrimage. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.50.
Trine, R. W. In Tune with the Infinite. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Vose, Rev. J. G. Children's Day Addresses. Boston: Pilgrim Press.
Vuillier, Gaston. A History of Dancing. Illustrated. Appletons. $12.
Wallace, Lew. The Wooing of Malkatoon. Commodus. Illustrated. Harpers. $2.50.
Wilson, J. Self-Control; or, Life without a Master. Newark, N. Y.: Courier Publishing House; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

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